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A formative perspective on language teaching and assessment: supporting young ethnic minority children in English primary classrooms

A FORMATIVE PERSPECTIVE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ASSESSMENT: SUPPORTING YOUNG ETHNIC MINORITY CHILDREN IN ENGLISH PRIMARY CLASSROOMS

by Oksana Afitska

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Abstract

Over the last decade there has been an increased interest in investigation of assessment for learning. However, to date there are still very few studies that investigated assessment for *language* learning, or formative language assessment, focusing particularly on: (1) effects of formative assessment on learners' linguistic development and on teachers' teaching and lesson planning; (2) variables influencing the frequency and extent of effectiveness of formative assessment; (3) teachers' and learners' views on teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment; and (4) and fulfilment of the requirements set in the official policy documents on effective teaching and assessment of learners with EAL in real classrooms.

The present study addresses these issues and thus extends the limited knowledge base on formative language assessment research to date. Moreover, through examining classroom embedded language assessment processes from various perspectives, it makes a link between two research areas, language testing and assessment and second language acquisition, also a relatively neglected field of research.

The study investigated two intact primary immersion classrooms, with learners as young as 8-10 years old, and teachers whose teaching roles in the classrooms differed; two teachers were mainstream classroom teachers and one was a mainstream teacher with specific responsibilities for language development in the school. The study derived data from literacy, numeracy and science lessons through classroom observations and from the research participants through interviews. The data were firstly transcribed and coded qualitatively and then analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Classifications used in all areas of the thesis are necessarily problematic.

The findings revealed that various language assessment strategies were used regardless of the subject area, lessons phase, or role of the teacher and had formative potential for both the teachers and the learners. However, the frequency of use and extent of effectiveness of these strategies sometimes varied. It was also found that four out of five language assessment strategies - namely, teacher feedback, teacher questioning, learner peer- and self-assessment - had clear positive effect on learners' linguistic development, with the teachers and the learners overall reporting having positive attitude to these strategies. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the requirements set in the official policy documents on effective teaching and assessment of learners with EAL were generally fulfilled by all the teachers.

The study may be of important relevance to researchers, teachers and policy makers currently concerned with raising the linguistic attainment of ethnically diverse learners in mainstream primary schools.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my family.

Acknowledgements

Many people have contributed to this dissertation in ways great and small. I wish to acknowledge some of them here.

My deep thanks and gratitude go to my dissertation supervisor, Professor Pauline Rea-Dickins, for her patience, encouragement, continuous, consistent and generous guidance and invaluable support throughout the years of my doctoral studies.

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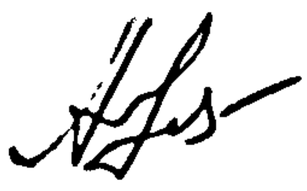
Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my parents, Alexander Afitsky and Nataliya Afitskaya, who continually encouraged and advised me throughout the studies, who always believed in me and who made this journey possible.

Author's Declaration

I declare that work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the Regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original, except where indicated by special reference in the text, and no part of this dissertation has been submitted for any other academic award. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author.

Signed:  Date: 12 August 2008

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PART I INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER ONE MOTIVATION AND PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

In recent years, considerable interest has been shown in the use of formative assessment (FA), or assessment for learning, in the context of second, foreign or mainstream classrooms (3.4). However to date, there are still very few studies that investigated formative *language* assessment (FLA) in *immersion* classrooms[1] (3.4), which Rea-Dickins (2007b) defines as:

> Good teaching – where teachers respond to learners' language learning and needs, with different types of feedback of an appropriate kind, of learner involvement through collaborative learning activities and self- and peer-assessment, with ample opportunities for language practice
>
> (Rea-Dickins, 2007b: 503)

The present study aims to address this lack of knowledge in the area of language testing and assessment and investigate language assessment practices that may have formative potential for the teachers and learners in intact primary immersion classrooms. The originality of the present study lies in the fact that it makes connections between two areas of research: language testing and assessment (LTA) on the one hand, and second language acquisition (SLA) on the other – a relatively neglected area of research[2]. Specifically, it explores how young learners' language development is supported and promoted in the immersion classrooms, and investigates whether, and if so how, it is assessed to support learning and inform next stages in teaching.

This chapter presents a rationale for choosing to examine teaching and assessment practices aimed at supporting and promoting learners' language development in English as an additional language (EAL) primary school context (1.2), presents the aims of the study (1.2), and its context (1.3), defines key terms (1.4), and sets out the organisation of the thesis (1.5).

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[1]Immersion classrooms – are mainstream classrooms where learners who learn English as an additional language (1.2) study together with English speaking learners

[2] But see Edelendos and Kubanek (2004), Leung and Mohan (2004) and Rea-Dickins (2002)

1.2 Research motivation and aims

It is estimated that in England in 2005 there were 686,200 pupils in primary, secondary and special mainstream schools who were recorded as having EAL (1.4) (DfES, 2005: 2; TES, 2005: 1). This number represented more than 10 per cent of the entire school population of England. In 2006 the number of pupils who live in England and speak EAL increased even further. According to statistical data published at the official website of National Association for Language Development in Curriculum (NALDIC), in 2006 in England only in primary schools as many as 419,600 (12.5%) of pupils whose first language was not English were recorded; and the total number of pupils whose first language was other than English was 734,550, that is 22% of the total school population (NALDIC, 2007[3]).

Many of the children, who learn EAL in the context of mainstream English classrooms, have also to acquire English language alongside their acquisition of the content of National Curriculum (SCAA, 1996). On the one hand, this requirement creates challenges for children, as they have to develop their English language skills at the same time as they develop their knowledge in school subjects (QCA, 2000, TES, 2005). On the other hand, it also creates challenges for teachers as they have not only to help EAL learners access the National Curriculum fully and raise their standard of achievement in all subjects, but also assist them "in becoming competent English language users as quickly and effectively as possible" (SCAA, 1996: 2).

To achieve these goals, official policy documentation – with specific reference to learners with English as an additional language[4] – puts forward a number of requirements, underlining the need for all teachers in all lessons to provide learners with appropriate language support and assist their language development. The main statements from official policy documentation in this respect are summarised in Table 1.1 below.

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[3] http://www.naldic.org.uk/docs/resources/documents/EALpupils.xls; http://www.naldic.org.uk/docs/resources/documents/EALpupilsbyLEA.xls

[4] SCAA (1996), Education Act (1996), DfES/NNFT (1999), DfEE (1999, 2000), QCA (1999, 2000), SEN Code of Practice (2001), Assessing English as an Additional Language (2002), OFSTED (2002), TTA (2000, 2004), NALDIC Working Paper 7 (2004), DfES (2001, 2003, 2004a 2004b, 2005, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c), NALDIC International Survey (2005), NALDIC Briefing Paper (2005), TES (2005; TDA, 2006a, 2006b), NALDIC's Position Statement on Assessment of English as an Additional Language (2007)

Table 1.1: Summary of principles for the effective teaching of learners with EAL – official documentation

Official policy documentation	Language support and development issues addressed
SCAA, 1996 *Teaching English as an Additional Language: A framework for policy*	- *All* teachers have responsibility for *simultaneous* teaching of both English and subject content (p.2); - Teachers should […] use language in ways that *support and stimulate development in English* [in order to] meet specific needs of pupils learning EAL. This requirement should be applied to *all* staff involved in teaching, instruction or providing support for learning (p.3); - EAL pupils [should] receive regular and appropriate feedback on their use of English, including sensitive, positive correction [and should be provided with] demonstration of alternative ways of expressing meanings in English such as paraphrasing' (p.14)
DfEE, 1999 *The National Curriculum: Handbook for primary teachers in England*	- Teachers should […] help EAL pupils *develop* their English and should aim to provide the *support* pupils need to take part in all subject areas (p.37)
TTA, 2000 *Raising the Attainment of Minority Ethnic Pupils: Guidance and resource materials for providers of initial teacher training*	- Developing the English of bilingual students is the responsibility of *all* teachers (p.51); - *all* teachers need to be prepared to teach or comment explicitly on the language forms, functions and structures (p.47); - Teachers should provide *constructive feedback* and opportunities for EAL learners to restate what has been learnt (p. 47)
DfES, 2001 *National Literacy Strategy: Framework for teaching YR to Y6*	- Teachers should provide EAL learners with opportunities to hear *good models of English* […] as well as opportunities to practice English in supportive environment
OFSTED, 2002 *Inspecting Post-16 English for Speakers of Other Languages and English as an Additional Language: with guidance on self-evaluation*	- Teachers should provide clear explanations and *appropriate correction of errors*, so that EAL learners could demonstrate competent use of grammar, syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary and idiom (p.13)
DfES, 2003 *Targets for Success: raising the attainment of minority ethnic pupils learning English as an additional language*	- Teachers should make sure that *levels of EAL support are closely tailored to learners' needs* (p.10)
DfES, 2004a *Aiming High: Understanding the educational needs of minority ethnic pupils in mainly white schools: a guide to good practice*	- *All* mainstream class and subject teachers have responsibility for developing pupils' competence in English, both written and spoken (p.8)
DfES, 2005b *Primary National Strategy. Summary of the National Numeracy Strategy: Supporting pupils with English as an additional language*	- Teachers should teach EAL learners *specific [...] vocabulary; recall* facts (p.7); use *visual clues;* provide *opportunities for language use*; provide *written models* of answers (p. 11); - Teachers should *repeat* answers [of EAL learners] in *sentences* (p. 11)
TDA, 2006b *Primary Induction. Pre-course information for EAL mentors & course programme*	- In a whole-class and in group/individual work sessions TAs (in DfES (2005c: pp 4-5) the same is said about CTs and LTs) should (1) echo, *explain and reinforce* the teacher's message; (2) *rehears* EAL and other children's *responses* (p.4); (3) act as a talk partner and as a role model for spoken English; (4) *explain* key words / *vocabulary;* (5) support the task/reading/writing (writing frames or sentence starters scribing) (p.9)

Following the guidelines from official policy documentation presented in Table 1.1 above, the present study seeks to reveal whether actual educational processes in immersion primary classrooms correspond to the requirements of official policy documentation in terms of provision of opportunities for language development and support to young learners with EAL in different *teaching* and *subject* contexts. This is the first aim of the present study.

The study also takes account of the fact that in immersion classrooms teachers are not only responsible for providing opportunities for learners' language development and support, but also they are responsible for formatively assessing (1.4) learners' linguistic knowledge in order to inform their teaching on the one hand, and support learners' progression in EAL, on the other. As Rea-Dickins (2008: 5) puts it, "in classrooms, teachers are expected both to develop and to measure their learners' language learning (Rea-Dickins, 2007b)", thus they appear to be "assessors of curriculum attainment [on the one hand] and, facilitators of language development, [on the other]" (Rea-Dickins, 2007a: 193).

The second aim of the present study, therefore, lies in investigating whether, and if so how, teachers through classroom embedded language assessment facilitate and promote EAL learners' language development. Table 1.2 below summarises guidelines from official policy documentation on the use of formative assessment in the classrooms.

Table 1.2: Summary of principles for the effective assessment of learners with EAL – official documentation

Official policy documentation	Assessment issues addressed
QCA, 1999 *National Curriculum*	- Teachers should provide careful *monitoring* of each (EAL learning) pupil's *progress in the acquisition of English language skills* and of subject knowledge
QCA, 2000 *A Language in Common: assessing English as an additional language*	- Teachers need to use pupils' profiles to highlight aspects […] of pupils' *use of English* which need particular attention when *planning the next stages* of teaching and learning (p.42)
Assessing English as an Additional Language, 2002 *Strategies for language for communication for pupils with EAL: assessing development in English and providing support*	- Teachers are suggested to promote EAL learners' language development through following classroom embedded assessment procedures: (1) *recasting*; (2) reflecting back single word/short utterances → *providing linguistic feedback*; (3) repeating back and *modelling correct forms*; (4) *planning* large amount of repetition; (5) *providing 'safe' contexts* for children to experiment with sound and language (pp.3, 5, 13-14)
DfES, 2003 *The Assessment of Pupils Learning English as an Additional Language*	-Teachers should be clear about the purpose of the assessment, distinguishing summative, *formative* and diagnostic aims (p.11) -Data gathered through *assessment of learning* can be used formatively and it *should feedback into classroom planning, teaching and learning*. (p. 2) -All departments and teachers [should] implement *regular assessment for learning* and [conduct] assessment practices that *immediately inform* planning and teaching (p.13).
DfES, 2004b *Aiming High: Supporting Effective Use of EMAG*	- Bilingual pupils that have been identified for additional support will require a detailed *diagnostic assessment*. This should focus on the *language* demands of the curriculum (p. 6).
DfES, 2005 *Aiming High: Guidance on the assessment of pupils learning English as an additional language*	- When procedures for *effective assessment for learning* are in place, teachers have a systematic way of building up a picture of each pupil, or groups of pupils, which contributes to an *on-going dialogue about their learning needs*. In the case of bilingual pupils, the systematic identification of language development needs is key to this […] (p. 6). - To make the conditions of assessment as favourable as possible for bilingual learners [teachers need to]: - ensure *opportunities for self-assessment and peer-assessment* as part of feedback […] (p. 22); - provide *additional support* where necessary to remove barriers; - ensure *observations* include situations where pupils can speak and listen in English in a non-threatening situation; - encourage and promote use of dictionaries in first language/English; - give pupils *time to respond* and try *not to interrupt the flow of an answer;* - *do not over-simplify questions* – extend communication by *using more complex language* and allow pupils the opportunity to demonstrate the breadth of the knowledge (p. 23).
NALDIC, 2007 *NALDIC Position Statement on Assessment of English as an Additional Language*	The framework suggests that 'in effective and productive EAL assessment framework a very high priority needs to be placed on *formative assessment*' which 'takes account of the different entry points of learners, with respect to age and curriculum demands, and shows *EAL progression in the context of the full curriculum*' (p.1)

Elaborating further on the two aims presented above, the present study seeks to:

- Identify classroom embedded language assessment opportunities in immersion classes that may support and promote English language development of young learners with EAL while they acquire main National Curriculum subjects (that is literacy, numeracy and science);
- Investigate whether type, frequency and effectiveness of language assessment strategies[5] that teachers and learners use vary across (a) subject lessons; (b) phase of lessons; (c) role of teachers leading lessons: classroom teacher (CT) versus language teacher (LT) (1.3);
- Develop insights into teachers' and learners' views on classroom embedded language assessment.

The research questions (RQs) that inform the present study are developed in accordance with the aims presented above. The first, second and fourth research questions inform the first aim of this study, the third and fifth – inform its second aim. The research questions are as follows:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): Which language assessment strategies, if any, do teachers and learners use in immersion classrooms to support and promote learners' linguistic development?

Research Question 2 (RQ2): What does the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depend on?

RQ2.1: Is the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners contingent on the subject lessons?

RQ2.2: Is the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners contingent on the phase (group work or plenary) in the lesson?

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[5] In this research I use term "language assessment strategies" to refer to classroom embedded language assessment processes that may have formative potential for the teachers and the learners. However, I also use this term to refer to language teaching, or better to say language support strategies, that teachers and learners use to assist EAL children with language learning. I do so because the line between teaching and good assessment for learning seems to be very indistinct, making it difficult to differentiate between the two processes. As Shepard (2005) (quoted in Carless, 2007: 172) puts it: "formative assessment ... is more about teaching than about what is commonly constructed as assessment".

RQ2.3: Is the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by teachers and learners contingent on whether the class teacher or the class teacher with specific responsibilities for language support (language teacher) leads the lessons?

Research Question 3 (RQ3): What is the impact of language assessment on learners' linguistic development?

Research Question 4 (RQ4): What does the effectiveness (measured by successful uptake) of language assessment depend on?

RQ4.1: Is, and to what extent, the effectiveness of language assessment contingent upon the subject lessons?
RQ4.2: Is, and to what extent, the effectiveness of language assessment contingent upon the phase of the lesson?
RQ4.3: Is, and to what extent, the effectiveness of language assessment contingent upon whether CT or LT leads the lessons?

Research Question 5 (RQ5): What are the teachers' and the learners' views on various language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms?

RQ5.1: What are the teachers' views on teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment in immersion classrooms?
RQ5.2: What are the learners' views on teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment in immersion classrooms?

The present study is primarily concerned with the effects of classroom embedded language assessment on primary school learners with EAL so as to provide insights into (1) language assessment processes that may be formative for the learners and the teachers, (2) their impact on learners' linguistic development, (3) and the implications for teaching and learning in the EAL context. However, it also has implications for the following professional organisations and research communities:

- The user communities on whom language assessment processes impact, that is, teachers and language support staff. As Rea-Dickins (2007a) puts it:

> In the primary curriculum context [...] this is a critical educational stage for the development and enhancement of the linguistic skills embedded within effective school literacies. It thus becomes crucially important to know how well the linguistic skills of learners with EAL are actually developed alongside the acquisition of school subject knowledge (i.e. in subject meaning-focused lessons), as such language development is a core element in the demonstration of this knowledge through National Curriculum assessments. The challenge, then, is to *develop teachers' understandings of SLA processes and how learners can acquire language through rich interactional formative assessment opportunities in mainstream classroom discourse* (my emphasis)
>
> (Rea-Dickins, 2007a: 209)

- Official bodies at regional and national levels and makers of assessment policy, such as the Local Education Authorities (LEAs), the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), and the Office for Standards in Education (OfSTED), as well as Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) and Teacher Training Agency (TTA);
- Professional organisations, such as NALDIC, a voluntary professional association for teachers and others concerned with the teaching and learning of EAL and bilingualism in the state sector;
- Applied linguists who work in fields of second and additional language acquisition, and language testing and assessment. Rea-Dickins (2007a), for example, suggests that "the *strength* of the validity evidence for the kind of routine classroom assessment, that is, formative assessment that supports *progression* in EAL" (the authors' emphasis) is still unclear and needs further investigation. She raises the following queries in relation to this issue:

> What evidence is there that the learners' English language proficiency is being developed through appropriate teacher feedback strategies and interactional opportunities both of which are at the very core of effective language assessment that is formative in terms of its impact on the learners themselves? Do all teachers with EAL learners in their classes assist the language development of these children systematically and effectively? And, if so, how?
>
> Rea-Dickins (2007a: 206)

The present study addresses these issues and thus attempts to fill the gap in the existing knowledge base that explores issues of *interaction* between second language acquisition, and language testing and assessment.

1.3 Research context

In the QCA (2000) document it is stated that "in effective schools, teachers and others work together for the benefit of all the pupils" (QCA, 2000: 5). In the context of schools with a high density of learners with EAL, a teaching team may consist of the following specialists: (1) mainstream (subject) teachers and (2) language support teachers. However, it is not necessarily the case that both teachers are present at the same time in any one classroom. Each of these school staff has specific teaching responsibilities. Class teachers are qualified teachers with specific responsibilities in a primary school for teaching all school subjects. Language teachers are also qualified teachers but they may also be specialists in teaching literacy or numeracy and have specific responsibilities for provision of language support within a school.

The classrooms in which I conducted my research comprised a high proportion of pupils with EAL (4.5) studying at Key Stage 2, Year 4 and 5 in an inner city primary school. Two types of teachers – language and class teachers - working either on their own or in collaboration, taught in these classrooms (4.5.1). The teaching situation outlined above corresponds to that described by Bourne (2001):

> *English as an additional language support...* [...] provides support for learning across the curriculum, and is delivered in English alone, drawing on a range of techniques from enhanced visual aids to scaffolding support for writing, with the EAL teacher or assistant [...] working in the mainstream classroom alongside the class teacher, following the same curriculum.
>
> (Bourne, 2001: 3)

The data for the study were collected in intact classrooms by means of observation (4.7.1) and interviews (4.7.2) over one period of three weeks. It is, therefore assumed that the lessons observed reflected routine teaching and learning practices.

1.4 Definition of key terms

English as an additional language

An early definition of the term "English as an additional language" appears in SCAA (1996). In this document, EAL is used to describe pupils "who are in the process of learning English on their entry to school" (ibid: 2) and who aim to learn all curriculum subjects entirely through the medium of English. I suggest that the term "EAL", in the context of English mainstream schools, is used to describe the

linguistic situation of children (1) who were either "born in UK, but speak language [or languages] other than English at home and in their community" (DfES, 2005: 4) and therefore are not as proficient users of English language as English native speaking children; or (2) who have "recently arrived [to an English speaking country] and for whom English is a brand new language" (NALDIC International Survey, 2005: 17) or at least a language of limited familiarity.

In other words, a suggested definition of EAL - as opposed to SCAA (1996) definition which focuses on the child's linguistic accuracy at the point of entering school - focuses on the specificity of the child's linguistic surrounding and opportunities for language development, either initial, as in case of recent arrivals, or ongoing, as in case of ethnic minority children born in UK but maintaining their culture and language(s) within home communities.

Focus on form

According to Long (1991: 45-46) language teaching processes that "overtly draw students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons where the overriding focus is on meaning or communication" may be defined as "focus on from". "Focus on from" may "occur occasionally and does not supplant the [lesson's] primary focus on meaning" (Ellis *et al.* 2001b: 283-284), whereas "focus on forms" may occur throughout the lessons and primarily focuses on linguistic forms rather than on communication. In this research, I examine subject lessons in the context of mainstream primary school where lessons' primary focus is on meaning (teaching of the subject content) rather than on forms (teaching of the linguistic features).

Formative language assessment

According to Bachman & Palmer (1996: 98) formative assessment is the assessment that may help "students guide their own subsequent learning, and teachers modify their teaching methods and materials so as to make them more appropriate for students' needs, interests, and capabilities". When formative language assessment is taken into focus, the above definition may be expanded to the following: formative language assessment is the assessment that may help students guide their own subsequent language learning, and teachers modify their language teaching methods

and materials so as to make them more appropriate for students' language learning needs.

The term assessment itself, in the context of mainstream classroom, also has its specific definition. Rea-Dickins (2007b: 492) suggests that "within the socio-cultural context of the classroom the term assessment is used to refer *to approaches to the elicitation of learner language*" (my emphasis). The present study adopts this definition and suggests that it includes not only approaches to the elicitation of learner language in the classroom but also approaches to supporting and promoting the development of language being elicited, since the main purpose of formative assessment is to bring about a change in learning, support it, but not merely measure. Therefore, the main purpose of formative language assessment is to bring about change in the learners' language learning; in other words, to support and promote their language development.

1.5 Organisation of thesis

The thesis consists of five parts, organised in seven chapters. Part I (Chapter 1), presented above, has provided the rationale and aims of the research, outlined its context, and defined key terms. Part II (below), reviews the literature on "focus on form" (Chapter 2) and "formative assessment" (Chapter 3), and proposes a Language Assessment Framework in 4.8. Part III (Chapter 4) presents the design of the study. Part IV presents the analysis of data and reveals findings (Chapter 5). Part V discusses these findings (Chapter 6), summarises this research, outlines its strengths and limitations, suggests implications for research, policy and practice, and provides overall conclusions in Chapter 7.

PART II
LITERATURE REVIEW: EXPLORING THE CONSTRUCT BASE

It will be recalled from 1.1 that the present study is positioned at the interface between two areas of research; second language acquisition and language testing and assessment. Therefore, this literature review, consisting of two chapters, explores relevant constructs and research from both research areas. The first chapter presents and reviews the SLA literature and research on "focus on form", with reference to "corrective feedback" and "uptake" (Chapter 2). The second chapter presents and reviews the LTA literature and research on "formative assessment", focusing on "feedback", "self- and peer-assessment" (Chapter 3). The construct of "focus on form" is used to develop the language assessment framework presented in 4.8, whereas the construct of "formative assessment" is used to investigate whether teacher and learner initiated assessment processes in the classrooms may be seen as potentially formative for either the teachers and the learners, or both (5.3.3 and 5.4).

CHAPTER TWO FOCUS ON FORM

2.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

This chapter focuses on SLA research in order to explore the construct of "focus on form", with specific reference to "corrective feedback" and "uptake" as parts of this construct. I firstly introduce the construct of "focus on from" (2.2) and eventually break it down to smaller elements of "corrective feedback" (2.3) and "uptake" (2.4). I then present a detailed review of the literature and research on "focus on form", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" (2.5). Following the literature review, I review methodological considerations of this research and reveal implications for the present study (2.6). In 2.7 I summarise the key themes discussed in the chapter.

2.2 Defining focus on form

In this section I introduce and define the construct of "focus on form".

As mentioned earlier, "focus on form" may be presented as a type of instruction that "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in

lessons where the overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, 1991: 45-46). During "focus on form" instruction the primary focus always lies on communication as opposed to "focus on forms"[6] instruction where the primary focus is on linguistic forms. "Focus on form" is transitory by nature - it occurs occasionally and does not supplant the primary focus on meaning (Ellis *et al.* 2001b: 283-284). Basturkmen et al (2002) state:

> focus on form instruction provides learners with the opportunity to take 'time-out' from focusing on message construction to pay attention to specific forms and the meanings they realise.
>
> (Basturkmen et al, 2002: 2)

This shift from focusing on message to focusing on language "induces learners to notice linguistic forms in the input which may assist the process of their interlanguage development" (ibid). "Focus on form" instruction may be broadly focused, that is a number of different linguistic forms which have not been pre-selected may be addressed in the context of a single lesson (Ellis, 2001). In this occasion "focus on form" is called "extensive".

However, "focus on form" instruction may also be intensive by nature. In this situation it is called "intensive" as it may "involve intensive attention to pre-selected forms" (Ellis, 2001: 17). This kind of "focus on form" is similar to "focus on forms" in that it focuses on pre-selected forms; however it is the only aspect in which the two teaching approaches are alike. Table 2.1 below summarises the main characteristics of "focus on form".

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[6] "Focus on forms" is a type of instruction used with traditional approaches to second language teaching. It constructs lessons in such a way so that they are "based on [intensive teaching and treatment of pre-selected] linguistic items" (Long, 1991 cited in Loewen, 2005: 362). Krashen (1982) calls "focus on forms" instruction "the structure-of-the-day approach" as it involves "teaching of discrete points of grammar in separate lessons" (Sheen 2002: 303). The main point about "focus on forms" is that learners' attention always focuses on form, either explicitly or implicitly, as focusing on form is considered essential for memorisation and memorisation is considered essential for learning.

Table 2.1: Main characteristics of "focus on form"

Type of form-focused instruction	Approaches that support instruction	Primary focus of the lesson is on:	Nature of linguistic input is:	Linguistic items being treated are:	Treatment of linguistic items is:
Focus-on-form	The direct method; The natural method; Audiolingualism; CLT*	Meaning	Transitory	Both pre-selected & not pre-selected	Both intensive & extensive

* Adopted form Sheen (2003: 229)

In this section the concept of "focus on form" was introduced. In the next section I introduce the concept of "incidental focus on form" and discuss its types as they form the base for the analytical categories used in the language assessment framework presented in 4.8.

2.2.1 Incidental focus on form

Before introducing the types of "incidental focus on form" I first define the concept of "incidental focus on form". "Incidental focus on form", as opposed to "planned focus on form instruction"[7], is "extensive' by nature" (Ellis, 2001: 16). It involves "focusing on diverse linguistic structures [grammatical, lexical, phonological, pragmatic] as they arise spontaneously during meaning-focused activities" (Loewen, 2004: 154). During "incidental focus on form" "the teacher does not make any attempt to predetermine which form or forms will be attended to; rather the focus on form arises naturally out of the performance of a communicative task [...]" (Basturkmen, et al. 2004: 244).

In short, "incidental focus on form" may occur in two situations:

- when learners make linguistic errors and the teacher (sometimes other learners) chooses to deal with them – here the opportunities for pushed output [uptake] may arise (Loewen, 2005: 363), and
- when either the teacher or learners choose to attend to a linguistic form even though there were no obvious reasons for so doing. In the first situation "incidental focus on form" is called "reactive", in the second - "pre-emptive".

[7] "Planned focus on form" or "proactive focus on form instruction" (Ellis et al, 2001a: 413) involves "intensive attention to pre-selected forms" (Ellis, 2001: 16-17) "during meaning-focused activities" (Loewen, 2004: 154). There are usually no more than one or two pre-selected forms which are dealt with during one lesson or activity.

Below, these two types are discussed in detail, beginning with "pre-emptive incidental focus on form".

When "pre-emptive incidental focus on form" is used "the teacher or a learner takes time out from a communicative activity to initiate attention to a form that is perceived to be problematic even though no production error in the form or difficulty with message comprehension has arisen" (Ellis, 2001: 22). "Pre-emptive incidental focus on form" usually consists of "exchanges that involve a query and response" (Ellis et al, 2001a: 414). It allows a brief shift from focusing on meaning to focusing on form and back again without disrupting a communicative flow of the lesson. A query may be raised either by the teacher and then it is called "teacher-initiated pre-emption" (Ellis et al, 2001a: 415), or by the learner in which case it is called "student-initiated pre-emption" (ibid). The usefulness of "teacher-initiated pre-emption" may be questioned sometimes as a "perceived gap in learners' knowledge [which it addresses] may not necessarily be the actual gap the learners have" (ibid).

I would argue here that "teacher-initiated pre-emption" has its role to play in the second language classroom regardless of the type of gap in learners' knowledge it addresses. In a case when the perceived gap addressed by the teacher IS an actual gap in learners' language knowledge then the teacher-initiated pre-emption may lead to explanation (and may be the practicing) of a problematic language form. In a case when the perceived gap in learners' language knowledge IS NOT an actual gap then teacher-initiated pre-emption leads to revising (and may be further practicing) of a known language form. Whatever situation appears to be the case, the learners have an opportunity to attend explicitly to their second language (L2) and maybe to improve it.

According to Ellis et al (2001a: 422) there are two patterns of teacher-initiated pre-emption; the first appears when the teacher raises a question about a linguistic item, and the second takes place when the teacher draws attention to a linguistic form by modelling or reminding the students about it. These patterns will be further considered in 4.9 in relation to the analytical categories / components of the language assessment framework, specifically: "teacher questioning" (4.9.3) in relation to "teacher-initiated pre-emption" as described in the first pattern, and "teacher

supportive input" (4.9.1) in relation to "teacher-initiated pre-emption" as described in the second pattern.

The second type of "pre-emptive incidental focus on form" is "student-initiated pre-emptive query". This type of query contrasts with "teacher-initiated pre-emptive query" in that it is initiated by the learner, not by the teacher. Loewen (2005: 365) argues that students' initiated attention to linguistic forms may be particularly useful, as in this case students address a real gap in their second language knowledge and demonstrate awareness of linguistic items that are problematic to them.

Ellis et al (2001a: 415), however, warn that one should not always assume that when the learner raises a linguistic query it is always problematic to him/her, as sometimes, though not often I presume, the learner may "elect to focus on form that he or she already knows". I generally agree with Loewen's (2005) position and believe that "student-initiated incidental focus on form" is likely to facilitate faster development of learners' second language knowledge than "teacher-initiated incidental focus on form" as self-initiated query (1) may attract more attention from the side of the learner as he / she initially showed interest in it, and (2) may be considered by the learner with increased respect. "Student-initiated incidental focus on form" will be further considered in 4.9 in relation to the "learner explicit need for linguistic assistance" category (4.9.2) of the language assessment framework.

"Reactive incidental focus on form" is the second type of "incidental focus on form". As opposed to "pre-emptive incidental focus on form", it addresses not the perceived gap in learners' knowledge, but the actual "performance problem" (Ellis et al, 2001a: 414). In other words, it arises "when learners produce an utterance containing an actual error, which is then addressed usually by the teacher [and] sometimes by another learner" (ibid: 413).

"Reactive incidental focus on form" instruction takes the form of sequences involving "a trigger, an indicator of a problem, and a resolution" (Varonis and Gass, 1985 cited in Ellis et al, 2001a: 414). To put it another way, "reactive incidental focus on form" begins with a linguistic error the learner has made (categorised as "learner implicit need for linguistic assistance" in the language assessment

framework in 4.9.2), followed by the teacher or another learner "negative" feedback (2.3), which may then lead to solving of the linguistic problem and, possibly, to learner "uptake" (2.4). Mennim (2003: 130) suggests that "reactive incidental focus on form" may allow "focusing students' attention on their own output". This is a point of similarity between "reactive incidental focus on form" and "student-initiated pre-emptive focus on form" as they both address the actual gap in a learner's knowledge.

"Reactive incidental focus on form" will be further considered in 4.9 in relation to the following analytical categories of the language assessment framework: "teacher feedback" (4.9.4) linked to "teacher reactive incidental focus on form", "learner peer-" (4.9.5) and "self-assessment" (4.9.6) linked to "learner reactive incidental focus on form". Table 2.2 below summarises the main characteristics of "pre-emptive" and "reactive incidental focus on form".

Table 2.2: Main characteristics of "pre-emptive" and "reactive incidental focus on form"

Type	Initiated by	Addresses*	Developing sequence*	Solved by
Pre-emptive	teacher or learner	Perceived / actual gap in knowledge	Query → response	Either teacher or learner
Reactive	teacher or learner	Performance problem = actual gap in knowledge	Trigger → indicator of problem → resolution	Teacher (sometimes learner)

* adopted from Ellis et al (2001)

In this section I introduced and discussed types of "incidental focus on form", briefly touching on the concept of "negative or corrective feedback". In the next section I further present and discuss "corrective feedback".

2.3 Corrective feedback

This section focuses on "corrective feedback" as part of "reactive incidental focus on form", and its types. I firstly, introduce the concept of "corrective feedback" by linking it with the concept of "negative feedback", and then present types of "corrective feedback".

According to Iwashita (2003: 2) "feedback" may be defined as "some kind of native speaker response [in the context of foreign language classroom it is a teacher] to what the learner has said". Such a teacher response may provide either positive information on what the learner has said, and then it is called "positive feedback", or negative information about the learner's utterance, in which case it is called "negative feedback".

The notions of "negative feedback" and "corrective feedback" are sometimes used interchangeably in the academic literature. Indeed, Chaudron's (1977: 31) definition of "corrective feedback" as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner [non-target-like] utterance" seems quite similar to Oliver and Mackey's (2003: 519) definition of "negative feedback" as "feedback [which is] provided in response to learners' non-target-like production". It can be observed that both definitions emphasise that in order for "negative/corrective feedback" to occur there needs to be a non-target-like language production (i.e., error) from the side of the learner and the teacher's, or another learner's, reaction to it. In this research I use the term "corrective feedback" to refer to such teacher or learner initiated corrective responses.

In the SLA literature it is generally agreed to differentiate between six main types of "corrective feedback". According to Lyster and Ranta (1997: 47-48) these are:

- *Explicit correction* – the teacher explicitly provides the correct form;
- *Recasts* – the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, minus error;
- *Clarification requests* – the teacher indicates to the student that either his/her utterance has been misunderstood or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is needed;
- *Metalinguistic feedback* – the teacher provides either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form[8];

[8] Davies (2006), quite similarly to Lyster and Ranta (1997), codes teacher feedback as "metalinguistic" when "the teacher tries to elicit the correct form from the student by giving a clue in the form of either grammatical metalanguage or a word definition in the case of lexical error" (p. 844). In my study I code feedback as "metalinguistic" only when the teacher provides the answer AND explicitly comments on the grammar rule used. When word definition, in case of lexical error, is

- *Elicitation* – the teacher directly elicits the correct form from the student;
- *Repetition* – the teacher repeats in isolation the student's erroneous utterance.

Sometimes two more types of "corrective feedback" are identified. One is called "*multiple feedback*" - it is used when the teacher combines more than one type of feedback in one turn; and the other is called "*translation*" (Panova and Lyster, 2002: 582), and it is used when the teacher or learner translates the target item from the first language (L1) to L2 or vice versa. However, "translation" may be applicable only in some contexts, whereas the other seven types of "corrective feedback" introduced above may appear in all L2 contexts.

Types of "corrective feedback", as defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997), are sometimes grouped into larger and more general "corrective feedback" types according to the degree of their explicitness/implicitness to the learner. Specifically, when "corrective feedback" occurs as part of "reactive incidental focus on from" it is often perceived as "explicit", "when the learner is told directly what the error is or is given metalingual information relating to the correct form" (Ellis et al, 2001a: 413), or "implicit", "when the learner's deviant utterance is recast in the target language form" (ibid) or when his/her attention is implicitly drawn to the problematic utterance in an attempt to elicit a correct form.

In the present research I also use "explicit" and "implicit" characteristics of "corrective feedback" to group it into two types. The "implicit corrective feedback" type includes "recasts", "clarification requests", "elicitations" and "repetitions"; whereas the "explicit corrective feedback" type is comprised of "explicit corrections" and "metalinguistic feedback"[9]. In 4.9.2 I reveal how these two types fit into the

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provided it is coded as "recast" or "explicit correction", when preceded or followed by explicit drawing of the learner's attention to the correct form.

[9]Davies (2006) codes only "recast" and "clarification request" as "implicit", but "explicit correction"; "metalinguistic feedback"; "elicitation" and "repetition" as "explicit" "focus on form" (or feedback) types [p 847]. I view "elicitation" and "repetition", as opposed to Davies, as "implicit feedback" types, as none of these feedback strategies explicitly provides the targeted forms to the learners. It must be noted here however that "recasts" do provide exact correct answers to the learners, but this is not done explicitly – learner attention is not drawn explicitly to either a mistake made by him/her or the correction made by the teacher. Therefore, recasts are implicit to the learners. In the case of other three "implicit corrective feedback" types – "clarification request", "elicitation" and "repetition" - the correct forms are not provided to the learners at all.

categories of error correction sequence[10] used as part of the language assessment framework I propose.

In this section I presented the concept of "corrective feedback" and discussed its types. In the next section I introduce and explain the concept of "uptake" as, firstly, it may occur as part of "reactive incidental focus on form", one of the targeted units of analysis in this research; and secondly, it is sometimes seen by the SLA researchers as a possible predictor or facilitator of second language development (McDonough, 2005; Loewen, 2005).

2.4 Uptake

Several definitions of "uptake" are suggested in the academic literature. As a very early definition, Allwright (1984) uses the term "uptake" to refer to "what learners are able to report learning during or at the end of the lesson". Lyster and Ranta (1997), however, use the notion of "uptake" to refer to "different types of student responses, immediately following the feedback, including responses with repair of the non-target items as well as utterances still in need of repair". Ellis *et al.* (2001b) define "uptake" in a similar sense as Lyster and Ranta (1997), stating that it is:

> an optional student move which occurs in episodes where the learner has demonstrated a gap in his/her knowledge [for example, by making an error; by asking a question; or by failing to answer a teacher's question] and which is a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant [usually the teacher] either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature
>
> (Ellis et al, 2001b: 286)

In this study I use Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of "uptake" as it focuses on *immediate* learner performance, that is, immediate learners responses to the teacher or other learners' feedback, as opposed to Allwright's (1984) definition which focuses on both immediate and delayed learner performances.

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) there are two types of "uptake": (1) "repair" and (2) "needs-repair". Panova and Lyster (2002), however, add one more type here

[10] Error correction sequence is adopted from Lyster and Ranta (1997)

– "no opportunity for uptake". Below I present each type in turn and link them to the coding categories used in my error correction sequence (4.9.2).

"Repair" occurs when the learner makes "the correct reformulation of an error in a single turn; and not in the sequence of turns resulting in correct reformulation" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 49). The category of "repair" does not include "self-initiated repair". According to the authors, "repair" may occur in the following four forms:

- *Repetition* – refers to a student's repetition of the teacher's feedback when the latter includes the correct form;
- *Incorporation* – refers to a student's repetition of the correct form provided by the teacher, which is then incorporated into a longer utterance produced by the student.
- *Self-repair* – refers to a self-correction, produced by the student who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback when the latter has not yet provided the correct form.
- *Peer-repair* – refers to peer-correction provided by a student, other than the one who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback.

The "repair" category is further considered in 4.9.2 in relation to the "successful uptake" category of the error treatment sequence.

The second of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) "uptake" category - "needs-repair" - refers to "situations in which the student has responded to the teacher's feedback in some way but the uptake has not resulted in repair" (Panova and Lyster, 2002: 586). This category may include the following six types of utterances:

- *Acknowledgement* – generally refers to a simple 'yes' [or 'no'] on the part of the student in response to the teacher's feedback;
- *Same error* – refers to uptake that includes a repetition of the student's initial error;
- *Different error* – refers to a student uptake that is in response to the teacher's feedback but that neither corrects nor repeats the initial error; instead, a different error is made;

- *Off target* – refers to uptake that is clearly in response to the teacher's feedback turn but that circumvents the teacher's linguistic focus altogether, without including any further errors;
- *Hesitation* – refers to a student's hesitation in response to the teacher's feedback;
- *Partial repair* – refers to uptake that includes a correction of only part of the initial error.

As opposed to the "repair" category, which always leads to "successful learner uptake", "needs-repair" category "may allow error treatment sequences to go beyond the third turn" when the teacher, or another learner, provides additional feedback to the struggling learner (Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 51). The "needs-repair" category is further considered in 4.9.2 in relation to the "unsuccessful uptake" and "other uptake" categories of the error treatment sequence used as part of the language assessment framework.

However, there are also situations when there is no possibility for "uptake" even though there was an error produced by the learner; this is called "no opportunity for uptake". Panova and Lyster (2002: 585) suggest that there may be two cases, in which "uptake" is likely not to occur.

- Firstly, when "teacher feedback is followed by teacher-initiated topic continuation move, thus denying the student an opportunity to respond to feedback"; and
- secondly, when "teacher feedback is followed by student-initiated topic continuation move, i.e., feedback fails to be verbally acknowledged and perhaps noticed, if noticing is measured by the presence of student response".

The "no opportunity for uptake" category is further considered in 4.9.2 in relation to the "other uptake" category of the error treatment sequence used as part of the language assessment framework.

In this section I introduced the concept of "uptake" and presented its types, I then made a link between the "uptake" types defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002), and the categories of the error treatment sequence used in

my research. In the next section, I review and discuss SLA research in the area of "focus on form" with specific reference to "corrective feedback" and "uptake".

2.5 Review of relevant SLA research

I begin this section with reviewing research on "focus on form" (2.5.1), the broadest area of SLA research of the three reviewed in this section. I then narrow down my focus to reviewing research on "corrective feedback" (2.5.2), which may occur as part of "reactive incidental focus on from". I finally review research on "uptake" (2.5.3), as it may also occur as part of "reactive incidental focus on from" and is sometimes seen as a possible facilitator of second language development.

2.5.1 Review of research on focus on form

In this section I examine research on "focus on from" in relation to the following issues: impact on language learning (I); use in the communicative language teaching (CLT) classrooms (II); effectiveness depending on type (III); research on learners (IV) and teachers (V). These issues are further discussed in light of the present research findings in 6.4.

I Impact on language learning

It has long been an issue of great interest and attention from the side of SLA researchers whether "focus on from" may positively affect second language acquisition of learners who learn language in the context of communicative language classrooms. A literature review of the research over the last 18 years provides a considerable amount of evidence which shows that "focus on form" may lead to the improvement of linguistic knowledge of learners learning second or foreign language (2.6). Some of these findings are presented below.

The first evidence in favour of "focus on form" appear in Lightbown and Spada's (1990) study which investigated the effects of "focus on form" and corrective feedback provided in the context of teaching programs that were based on the principles of communicative language teaching. It was found that form-based

instruction within a communicative context may contribute to higher levels of linguistic knowledge and performance. This finding was supported by findings obtained by Doughty and Varela's (1998) experimental study, which revealed that learners who received "focus on form" instruction improved in both accuracy and the total number of attempts at past time reference.

Harley (1998) also conducted a study which aimed to determine whether an early instructional "focus on form" could have an influence on proficiency in an area of French that has been found to be a persistent problem for immersion students. She found that instructional "focus on form" could have a lasting impact on the second language proficiency of learners as young as 7 or 8 years of age, which suggests that "focus on form" instruction may have beneficial effects not only for adult learners but also for younger ones.

In 2000 Muranoi conducted a quasi-experimental study that examined the impact of interaction enhancement on the learning of English articles by first-year Japanese college students. By interaction enhancement the researcher meant treatment that guided learners to "focus on form". Again, it was found that interaction enhancement plus formal debriefing treatment had a greater impact on learners' acquisition of English articles than the interaction enhancement plus meaning-focused debriefing treatment. In other words, it was found that feedback on form was more beneficial for learners' language development than feedback on content only.

A couple of years later, Ellis (2002) reviewed 11 studies which examined the effects of form-focused instruction on learners' free language production. This was done in order to reveal the role "focus on form" played in developing of learners' implicit knowledge. The researcher found that "focus on form" could contribute to the acquisition of implicit knowledge. By implicit knowledge Ellis meant learners' intuitive awareness of linguistic norms and their ability to process language automatically (i.e. learners could use linguistic form/feature correctly and appropriately but they did not know the rule).

In 2003 Mennim conducted an experimental study which aimed to find out whether students could take advantage of a rehearsal of their final oral presentation in order to

make improvements to their spoken output. He found that students managed to recall many of the corrected forms and reformulations and that their final presentation showed improvements in pronunciation and grammar, and in the organisation of content.

Following Mennim's (2003) study, Lyster (2004) conducted a quasi-experimental classroom research which investigated the effects of "focus on form" and corrective feedback on immersion students' ability to accurately assign grammatical gender in French. Here again, the researcher found that there was a significant increase in the ability of students exposed to "focus on form" to correctly assign grammatical gender.

In 2005, Loewen's observational study examined the effectiveness of "incidental focus on form" in promoting second language learning. The findings obtained from the research supported all the findings presented above - learners were able to recall the targeted linguistic information correctly or partially correctly nearly 60% of the time one day after the "focus on form" episode, and 50% of the time 2 weeks later, which implies that "focus on form" instruction could indeed have had positive impact on students' second language development.

Finally, recently Bouffard and Sarkar (2008) investigated effects of "focus on form" on language awareness and learning in the context where 8 year old learners attended to metalinguistic features of the language to analyse their linguistic errors. The researchers found that learning of metalinguistic terminology positively influenced the speeding up of learners' analyses and their ability to repair errors. In other words, the researchers suggest that focusing on form may improve learners' language awareness and learning.

In this section I presented research on "focus on form" in relation to its impact on language learning. In the following section, I reveal research that investigated practical issues related to use of "focus on form" in communicative language classrooms.

II Use in CLT classrooms

Despite many findings suggesting that "focus on form" may have positive effects on language learning in communicative classrooms, a sign of warning was raised by Lyster and Ranta in 1997. These researchers cautioned that focusing on form in communicative classrooms, or in classrooms with task-based instruction could be dangerous as the flow of communication might be broken, a focus taken up for further investigation by a number of SLA researchers.

In 1997 Seedhouse investigated the problems inherent in focus on either form and accuracy or meaning and fluency, and examined existing evidence as to whether and how much a dual focus (i.e., "focus on form" and "meaning") can be achieved in practice. The researcher found that "reactive focus on form" could be provided without unduly interfering with the focus on meaning in a classroom context in cases when the teacher has drawn attention to form implicitly, that is, when he/she has "corrected form [error] without any overt or explicit negative evaluation or indication that an error has been made" (Ellis *et al.*, 2001b: 289).

Similarly, in 1998 Doughty and Varela while conducting a study which aimed to determine whether and how learners' attention could be drawn to formal features without distracting them from their original communicative content, found that it was possible to incorporate a "focus on form" with no risk to the content curriculum as long as the tasks were carefully created and incorporated into authentic content lessons already in place.

In 2001 Ellis et al conducted two studies, both of which supported the findings presented above. The first study, (2001a), revealed that "direct focus on form" episodes did not appear to interfere unduly with the communicative flow of the teaching; and the second study, (2001b), revealed similar findings – "focus on form" could occur without disturbing the communicative flow of a classroom.

Having presented research on use of "focus on from" in CLT classrooms, I now turn to examination of issues that may influence its effectiveness.

III Effectiveness

Given the evidence that "focus on form" may be incorporated into communicative lessons without disturbing their flow, another question emerged – what type of "focus on form" is the most effective? In 1997 Spada reviewed research which investigated the effects of "form-focused" instruction on second language acquisition. She found that learners who benefited most from instruction were those who received "form-focused" instruction which was operationalised as a combination of metalinguistic teaching and corrective feedback provided within an overall context of communicative practice. Metalingusitic teaching is explicit "planned" or "pre-emptive incidental focus on from" strategy, and corrective feedback is a part of either explicit or implicit "reactive incidental focus on from", therefore Spada's finding suggests that both *explicit and implicit* "focus on form" may be needed to help learners benefit from language lessons the most.

In 2004, Lyster found that "focus on form" seemed to be more effective when combined with *prompts* (which is implicit and *eliciting* type of instruction that invites learners to respond to it in some way) rather than with recasts (which is also implicit type of instruction, but it is not eliciting, rather direct and covert, which learners may not notice) or no feedback. In other words, Lyster stated that implicit eliciting "reactive incidental focus on from" seemed to be more effective than implicit direct and covert "reactive incidental focus on form" or no "reactive incidental focus on form" at all.

Similarly to Lyster (2004), in his observational study that investigated variables which could predict the production of uptake (2.4) and successful uptake in "incidental focus on form" in meaning-focused lessons, Loewen (2004), found that complex, "immediate focus on form" episodes with *eliciting responses* were more likely to lead to learner uptake; and that complex, code-related, reactive, immediate, and "heavy focus on form" episodes with *eliciting responses* were more likely to lead to successful learner uptake.

However, Ellis (2002) and Fuente (2006) suggest that it is explicit focus on form that may be more effective in promoting learning than implicit focus on form. Ellis

(2002) found two variables seemed to influence success of "focus on form". They were (1) the choice of the target, and (2) the extent of the instruction. In other words, Ellis found that the *more explicit and detailed* instruction was, the greater the chances seemed to be that learners would benefit in terms of their target language development.

Similarly, Fuente (2006), when investigating the effects of three vocabulary lessons (one traditional and two task-based) on acquisition of basic meanings, forms and morphological aspects of Spanish words found that a task based lesson with an *explicit focus on forms* component seemed to be more effective than a task based lesson that did not incorporate this component in promoting acquisition of word morphological aspect.

Macaro and Masterman's (2006), however, suggest that explicit focus on form may not necessarily be as beneficial for promoting language learning as it is often believed to be. In their study that investigated the effects of explicit grammar instruction on grammatical knowledge and writing proficiency in first-year students of French at a UK university, the researchers found that even though explicit instruction indeed led to gains in some aspects of grammar tests, it did not seem to lead to gains in accuracy in either translation or free composition.

The research presented above provides quite diverse findings: Spada (1997) suggested that both explicit and implicit "focus on from" may be needed to support and promote language learning. Lyster (2004) and Loewen (2004) recommended using implicit eliciting "focus on from" to facilitate language acquisition. Ellis (2002) and Fuente (2006) seemed to support explicit "focus on from" strategies. Macaro and Masterman (2006) appeared to question the effectiveness of explicit focus on form suggesting that it may not always be as effective as it is often believed to be. I believe that in order to gain a better understanding on how explicit and implicit "focus on form" may influence language learning further research is still needed.

In this section I reviewed research that investigated types of "focus on from" in relation to their effectiveness for promoting second language learning. In the next

section I review research on "focus on from" that takes learners as the main focus for investigation.

IV Research on learners

One of the issues discussed earlier concerned the question of attending to form and meaning at the same time (II). Doughty and Varela (1998) conducted a study which explored students' beliefs on this topic. The findings revealed that students believed that they could pay attention to meaning, communication and form at the same time.

However, in her study conducted one year after Doughty and Varela's study, Williams (1999) revealed that even though learners did initiate attention to form (which means that they could attend simultaneously to form and content, as reported in Doughty and Varela's (1998) study) they did not do so very often. Besides, she found that there seemed to be a tendency for more proficient learners to pay more attention to form than the less proficient. Williams also found that when learners did initiate attention to form, they greatly focused on lexical aspects of the language. This finding is similar to those of Ellis et al's (2001a), where the researchers revealed that the majority of focus on form episodes initiated by students dealt with vocabulary.

Another issue that I address in this section is learner ability to "focus on form" independently and benefit from it without teacher being involved in the procedure. I call this procedure "learner independent focus on form" or "learner driven linguistic noticing". Specifically, by "learner driven linguistic noticing" I mean learner's ability to pay attention to form and notice gaps in his/her language knowledge as the lesson progresses by attending to the teacher's or other learners' linguistic input, through interactions with them and through revisions of own work. This procedure may possibly be seen as having a lot in common with learner self-assessment (3.2.2) where learners independently monitor their own learning.

It has been suggested in the recent research (Mackey, 2006; Mennim, 2007 and Hanaoka, 2007) that there may be a positive relationship between the learners' ability

to notice their linguistic gaps and their subsequent L2 learning. I review this research below.

In her study, that explored the relationships between feedback, instructed ESL[11] learners' noticing of L2 form during classroom interactions and their subsequent L2 development, Mackey (ibid) found a positive relationship between interactional feedback in the classroom, the learners' reports about noticing and their learning of L2. According to the researcher, for example, 83% of those learners who noticed targeted question forms learned them. The numbers were lower for the other two linguistic forms examined, however there also seemed to be positive effects from noticing them: 50% of those learners who noticed plural forms learned them, and 20% of those learners who noticed past tense forms learned them.

Mennim's (2007) paper examined the effects of classroom exercises that encourage noticing and conscious attention to form. It was observed by the researcher that over a nine month period learners' accuracy in the use of the target word much improved, which again suggests a long-term gain in language learning.

Finally, Hanaoka (2007), when examining the relationship between learners' output, noticing and learning found that, firstly, the participants noticed overwhelmingly lexical features as they autonomously identified their respective problems, found solutions through models, and incorporated them in subsequent revisions; secondly, that more proficient learners noticed significantly more features than less proficient learners when they compared their original output with two models; and finally, and importantly, that among the features of the models that the participants noticed, those that were related to the problems that they had noticed through output were incorporated at a higher rate and were also retained longer than unrelated features.

The research on "learner driven independent focus on from" reviewed above focused on older language learners. However, referring to Bouffard and Sarkar (2008), who argued that children as young as 8 may be mature enough to attend to form if they are taught how to, it may be suggested here that younger learners may probably

[11] ESL - English as a second language

benefit from "learner driven independent focus on form" as well as more mature learners.

In this section I focused on learner variables in relation to "focus on from", in the following section I focus on investigating teacher variables in relation to "focus on form".

V Research on teachers

Basturkmen et al (2004) conducted a case study which examined teachers' stated beliefs about communicative language teaching and the role of "incidental focus on form" and compared their stated beliefs with their "focus on form" practices in the performance of a communicative task. They found that there seemed to be some inconsistencies in the teachers' stated beliefs, in particular in relation to when it was legitimate to take time out from a communicative activity to focus on issues of form, and in relation to preferred error correction technique.

In the same year Mackey et al (2004) also conducted an empirical study which explored whether ESL teachers' use of "incidental focus on form" was influenced by their level of experience. The researchers found that experienced ESL teachers used "incidental focus on form" more frequently than inexperienced teachers, and that even though inexperienced teachers seemed to benefit from the teacher education workshop that was designed to encourage their reflection on and awareness of "incidental focus on form" in the L2 classroom, they did not all translate this awareness into consistent practice right away.

These findings suggest that more work may need to be done with teachers in order to make their teaching more consistent and effective for promoting learners' language development. The issues of effective language teaching are further addressed in 2.5.2.

Below I summarise the key findings from the research reviewed in this section (2.5.1):

- *Impact on language learning:* "Focus on form" seems to have positive impact on learners' linguistic development (Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Harley, 1998; Muranoi, 2000; Ellis, 2002; Mennim, 2003; Lyster, 2004; Loewen, 2005; Bouffard and Sarkar, 2008).
- *Use in CLT classrooms:* "Focus on form" may occur without interfering with the communicative flow of the lessons (Seedhouse, 1997; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Ellis et al, 2001a and 2001b).
- *Effectiveness depending on type:* Research provides diverse findings on this issue: Spada (1997) suggested using both explicit and implicit "focus on from" strategies to promote language learning, Lyster (2004) and Loewen (2004) recommended using implicit eliciting "focus on from", Ellis (2002) and Fuente (2006) seemed to support explicit "focus on from" strategies. Macaro and Masterman (2006) questioned effectiveness of explicit "focus on form" suggesting that it may not always be as effective as it is sometimes believed to be.
- *Research on learners:* Learners believe that they can attend to form and meaning at the same time (Doughty and Varela, 1998). "Learner driven independent focus on from" (learner noticing) seems to have positive impact on their L2 proficiency (Mackey, 2006; Mennim, 2007; Hanaoka, 2007). When learners initiated "focus on form" they seemed to address lexical aspects of the language most of all (Williams, 1999; Ellis et al, 2001a). There seemed to be a tendency for more proficient learners to pay more attention to form than for less proficient (Williams, 1999).
- *Research on teachers:* Some inconsistencies in teacher beliefs and practice were found in relation to their use of "focus on form" in communicatively oriented classrooms (Basturkmen et al, 2004). Teachers' experience seems to play a role in teachers' use of "focus on form" (Mackey, et al, 2004).

Having reviewed research in the area of "focus on form" from different perspectives (2.5.1), I now turn to reviewing research on "corrective feedback" as part of "reactive incidental focus on from" (2.5.2).

2.5.2 Review of research on corrective feedback

Below, I analyse the research on "corrective feedback"[12] in relation to the following issues: impact on language learning (I); use in CLT classrooms (II); effectiveness (III); and learner peer-correction (IV). These issues are further addressed and discussed in light of the present research findings in 6.4.

I Impact on language learning

There has been a debate among SLA researchers on whether "positive"[13] or "negative feedback" might facilitate learners' L2 development and acquisition. Some researchers suggest that provision of both "positive" and "negative feedback" may be important for promoting second language acquisition (Bley-Vroman, 1986; Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1985, 1988; White, 1987; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998b).

Others, however, favour a single perspective. Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004: 69), for example, states that "it is enhanced positive evidence, rather than negative feedback, that affects acquisition". Lightbown and Spada (1999: 119) seem to disagree with this position; they argue that "allowing learners too much "freedom" without correction and explicit instruction may lead to early fossilization of errors". In such a way, the researchers support the idea of importance of "negative" or "corrective feedback".

McDonough (2005) also supports the idea of facilitative role of "corrective feedback" in the process of second language acquisition. The researcher states that "corrective feedback" through interaction may contribute to L2 development by

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[12] There is a massive body of research on "recasts", implicit type of "corrective feedback" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Nabei and Swain, 2002; Han, 2002; Leeman, 2003; Iwashita, 2003; Sheen, 2004; Carpenter et al, 2006; McDonough and Mackey, 2006; Egi, 2007). However, detailed investigation of this "feedback type" per se is not targeted in the present study, therefore only several studies on "recasts" which are seen as highly relevant are included into this review section.

[13] Oliver (2000: 120) defines "positive evidence" as "the input or models that language learners receive about the target language". Positive evidence always provides learners with "examples of *acceptable* target language sentences" (Nicholas et al, 2001: 722, my emphasis).

informing learners about the comprehensibility of their utterances and by raising their awareness of language" (McDonough, 2005: 81).

Similarly, Iwashita (2003) suggests that "facilitative role of negative feedback [may lie in the fact that] it might draw learners' attention to mismatches between input and output" (Iwashita, 2003: 2). Long (1996) also admits that "corrective" or "negative feedback" may facilitate L2 development. The researcher argues that "negative feedback obtained during the negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts" (Long, 1996: 414).

Next, I review research that investigated use of "corrective feedback" in second language classrooms.

II. Use of focus on form in CLT classrooms

Evidence from section 2.6.1 suggests that teachers and learners are able to "focus on form" in the context of communicative language classrooms without disturbing communicative flow of the lessons (I). However, it is also interesting to see whether "corrective feedback", taken it is provided in the same context, interrupts the flow of the activities.

In her comparative study, which investigated similarities and differences in teachers' corrective feedback and learners' uptake across instructional settings, Sheen (2004) provides an answer to this question. She found that provision of corrective feedback occurred without undue interference to the communicative flow of lessons. In the same study the researcher also found that corrective feedback occurred frequently in all four examined settings, and that "recasts" seemed to be the most frequent feedback type teachers used during the lessons.

Similar findings – in terms of "recasts" occurrence – were obtained by Nabei and Swain (2002). In their experimental study the researchers found that "recasting" was the feedback type most frequently employed by the teacher. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observational study also revealed that there was an overwhelming tendency

for teachers to use "recasts". In line with this, research by Panova and Lyster (2002) showed that teachers preferred to use implicit types of reformulative feedback ("recasts" and "translation") to other types of "corrective feedback".

Two more studies that seem to support Nabei and Swain's (ibid), Lyster and Ranta's (ibid) and Panova and Lysters' (ibid) findings are those by Davies (2006), and Lyster and Mori (2006). In his observational study, that examined "paralinguistic focus on form" in communicatively oriented classrooms, Davies found that "recasts" were the most commonly used technique by the teachers. Similarly, Lyster and Mori's comparative study, that investigated the immediate effects of "explicit correction", "recasts", and "prompts" on learner "uptake" and "repair" in two different instructional settings, revealed predominant provision of "recasts" over "prompts" and "explicit correction" regardless of instructional setting.

Recently, Yoshida (2008) conducted an interview study that investigated teachers' choice and learners' preference for "corrective feedback" types. The study revealed that even though most of the learners preferred to have an opportunity to think about their errors and the correct forms before receiving correct forms by "recast", the teachers chose "recasts" because of the time limitation of classes and their awareness of learners' cognitive styles. The teachers commented that they would choose "elicitation" or metalinguistic feedback" when they regarded the learners who made erroneous utterances as being able to work out correct forms on their own. I believe that Yoshida's study brings some light on understanding why teachers choose "recasts" despite the fact that they seem not to be the most effective corrective technique in the language classrooms.

In this section three main points were revealed; namely that: (1) provision of "corrective feedback" seems to be a common practice in second language classrooms (but see Nabei and Swain's (2002) research where researchers found that teacher's feedback in general was extremely infrequent), (2) "corrective feedback" may occur without disturbing the communicative flow of the lessons, and (3) "recasts" seem to be the most common feedback type that teachers tend to use in their language classrooms. In the next section, I review research that examined effectiveness and the variables that seem to affect the effectiveness of "corrective feedback".

III Effectiveness[14]

It has been argued by some SLA researchers that not all "corrective feedback" may be effective. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005: 124) say that "simply providing the correction of the error may be not enough to make the student repair (2.5) the error". According to Nassaji and Swain (2000: 49) the effectiveness of "corrective feedback" may "depend on the degree to which it *explicitly* tells the learner about the error".

Roberts (1995) puts it differently. He suggests that there are two factors which may influence the effectiveness of "corrective feedback": (1) the learner's awareness of the fact that he/she is corrected, and (2) his/her understanding of the nature of the correction. Nassaji and Swain (2000: 36) add one more point to this discussion and state that "the usefulness of corrective feedback may be highly dependent upon the nature of the transaction and mediation provided by the expert [teacher] to the novice [learner] in this procedure". The researchers also add that the effectiveness of "corrective feedback" "may be not dependent much on the type of feedback" (ibid).

However, some researchers claim the opposite (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Lyster, 1998a; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Ishida, 2004; McDonough, 2005), as their findings indicate that there seem to be a relationship between the type of "corrective feedback" and appearance of "uptake" (2.4) from the side of the learners. These findings are further discussed in 2.6.3.

I now turn to reviewing the empirical research that specifically investigated the variables that, in line with few presented above, seem to be influencing the effectiveness of corrective feedback.

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[14] In this section I examine variables that may influence *delayed* impact from corrective feedback on language learning, impact that can be measured by tests, for example. I focus on variables that may influence *immediate* impact from corrective feedback, i.e. uptake, in 2.6.3. It is important to differentiate between these two foci as different feedback strategies seem to be used to promote language learning depending on the targets set (supporting and promoting immediate learning – implicit, eliciting feedback, 2.6.3 versus general supporting and promoting of learning – explicit, detailed feedback 2.6.2). However, some similarities between the two directions, of course, exist (2.6.3).

In 2002, Han conducted a study that focused, among other themes, on identification of the conditions under which "corrective feedback", "recasts" in particular, could facilitate learning. The researcher suggested that *developmental readiness* could play a role in the effectiveness of teachers' use of "recasts" and learners' acquisition of new linguistic items. Mackey and Philp (1998) observed exactly the same practices in their experimental study, finding that "recasts" seemed not to enable learners to acquire forms that they were not developmentally ready to acquire.

Nassaji and Swain (2000) conducted an experimental study which examined whether "corrective feedback" provided within a learner's zone of proximal development (ZPD) could improve his or her knowledge of English articles as opposed to feedback provided randomly and irrespective of the learner's ZPD[15]. The concept of Vygotsky's ZPD may be seen as similar to the concept of developmental readiness in that both concepts imply that learner may be ready (i.e., that he/she may be capable) to acquire new information with an adult's assistance. Nassaji and Swain's (2000) study investigated variety of corrective feedback types, not just "recasts". The findings the researchers obtained seem to support the findings of Mackey and Philp's (1998) and Han's (2002) studies. They state that "corrective feedback" provided within the learners' the ZPD seemed to be more effective than "corrective feedback" provided randomly. In her study, Han (2002) also suggested that not only learner's developmental readiness to acquire forms but also *individualized attention* could be necessary for recasts to facilitate learning.

Similarly, the case study of Nabei and Swain (2002), which investigated the relationship between the student's awareness of "recast feedback" and her L2 learning, found that the learner was more likely to notice teacher feedback in the group contexts than in teacher-fronted interaction. In other words, when the learner got more individualised attention from the teacher (group work as opposed to whole class work), she was more likely to benefit from it (she could at least notice, and at most use it).

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[15] ZPD is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978: 86).

One more variable that seems to be able to affect the effectiveness of "corrective feedback" and learning in second language classrooms, according to Revesz and Han (2006) and Mackey *et al* (2007), is provision of opportunities for learners to work with *tasks* that are *familiar in content and/or procedure.*

In the case of Revesz and Han's (2006) study that examined the impact of two task variables, task content familiarity and task type, on the efficacy of "recasts", it was found that participants who received "recasts" through tasks with familiar content displayed greater accuracy in their L2 oral and to a lesser extent, written production of the past progressive than those who received "recasts" through tasks without content familiarity.

Similarly, Mackey et al (2007), who examined patterns of young ESL learner task-based conversational interactions while their familiarity with the procedure and content of the tasks were manipulated, found that (1) learners who were engaged in procedurally familiar tasks had more opportunities to use feedback, and (2) learners who were engaged in tasks that were familiar in both content and procedure showed more actual use of feedback.

Another variable which may influence the effectiveness of "corrective feedback", according to Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) is "*time*" and "*duration of explanation*". The researchers conducted an observational study which compared teachers' and students' perceptions on "corrective feedback" in second language classrooms. It was found that the most effective corrections occurred when more time and longer explanations were used.

Similarly, Nassaji and Swain (2000) found that there was a tendency for more direct and explicit "prompts" (i.e., "prompts" which involved extended, detailed explanations) to be more useful than less direct implicit "prompts". Likewise Sheen (2007), when examining the differential effects of two types of written "corrective feedback" and the extent to which language analytic ability mediated the effects of "corrective feedback" on the acquisition of articles by adult intermediate ESL learners, found that even though both treatment groups (direct only correction group and direct metalinguistic correction group) performed much better than the control

group on the immediate post-tests, it was the direct metalinguistic group only that performed better than the direct-only correction group in the delayed post-tests. In other words, learners who received explicit linguistic explanations in addition to correction of their errors benefitted from the feedback more than learners who received "corrective feedback" only.

However, Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004), when conducting their experimental study which investigated the effects of computer-delivered, explicit information on the acquisition of Spanish word order by comparing four groups comprised of [+/- Explanation] and [+/- Explicit Feedback], observed a different practice. The researchers found that all groups examined in the study improved significantly and similarly on interpretation and production tests. On this basis the researchers concluded that explicit information may not necessarily facilitate second language acquisition and exposing learners to task – essential practice may be sufficient to promote acquisition. This finding may be seen similar to that of Macaro and Masterman (2006) presented earlier (2.6.1 - III), where the researchers suggested that explicit teaching of grammar may not necessary be crucial for promoting learning.

Finally, one more variable that seems to be influencing the effectiveness of "corrective" feedback types is *learners' orientation and type of instructional context* in which learners study a second language. In their observational study, Lyster and Mori (2006) found that "prompts" were effective for learners in classroom settings in which the communicative orientation did not favour opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy; whereas "recasts" were effective for learners in classroom settings in which the communicative orientation permitted regular opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy.

IV Learner peer-correction

In the three preceding sections (2.6.2 I-III) I focused on teacher "corrective feedback" as part of "reactive incidental focus on form". In this section I turn to an examination of research on learner "corrective feedback" as part of "reactive incidental focus on form, focusing in particular on two areas of learner "corrective

feedback", namely (1) the effectiveness of learner "corrective feedback" and (2) learners' attitudes to peer-correction.

After reviewing the research on learner "corrective feedback" it becomes evident that even though research has shown *how* learners react to "corrective feedback" provided by their peers (but see Oliver, 2000; Morris and Tarone, 2003), it has not really investigated the *effectiveness* of such feedback in terms of its capacity to promote learning. In the present study I address this gap in knowledge and investigate the effectiveness of "corrective feedback" provided by learners to their peers during peer- or group work.

I now turn to the question on learner attitudes to peer-correction. It was revealed by research that, firstly, learners were more likely to ignore negative feedback in the pair work situation than they were in the teacher-fronted lessons (Oliver, 2000), and secondly, when learners had negative feelings about their conversation partners they tended to interpret "corrective feedback" not as help, but as criticism (Morris and Tarone, 2003). When this was the case, learners did not make proper use of "corrective feedback" and kept making the same errors in their subsequent performances.

The following generalisation may be drawn from the above: learners' readiness to accept corrective feedback seems to be influenced (1) by the social role of the person who provides it (a teacher's corrections seem to be appreciated much more than learners' corrections), and (2) by interpersonal relationships between learners (corrections provided by 'a friend' seem to be accepted more eagerly).

Below I summarise the key findings from the research reviewed in this section (2.5.2):

- *Impact on language learning:* "Corrective, or negative, feedback" seems to be capable of facilitating L2 development (Long, 1996; Iwashita, 2003; McDonough, 2005).
- *Use in CLT classrooms:* The research evidence suggests that "corrective feedback" may occur without disturbing the communicative flow of the lessons (Sheen, 2004), and that "recasts" seem to be the most common feedback type

that teachers tend to use in their language classrooms (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Nabei and Swain, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Davies, 2006; Lyster and Mori, 2006).

- *Effectiveness:* Effectiveness of "corrective feedback" seems to be influenced by the following variables: (1) degree of explicitness (Nassaji and Swain, 2000; Sheen, 2007) and length of explanation (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005); (2) time variable (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005); (3) learner awareness of the fact that he/she is corrected (Roberts, 1995); (4) learner developmental readiness (Mackey and Philp, 1998; Nassaji and Swain, 2000; Han, 2002) and understanding of the nature of correction (Roberts, 1995); (5) type of feedback (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Lyster, 1998a; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Ishida, 2004; Sheen, 2004; McDonough, 2005); (6) individualised attention (Han, 2002); (7) content and/or procedure familiarity (Revesz and Han, 2006; Mackey *et al,* 2007); and (8) type of instructional context (Lyster and Mori, 2006).
- *Learner peer-correction:* Learner's readiness to accept corrective feedback from his/her peer may be influenced by social role of the person who provides it (Oliver, 2000) and by interpersonal relationships between learners (Morris and Tarone, 2003).

Having reviewed research on "corrective feedback" (2.5.2) I now turn to reviewing research on "uptake", another part of "reactive incidental focus on from" (2.5.3).

2.5.3 Review of research on uptake

In this section I review research on "uptake" in relation to the following issues: impact on language learning (I); occurrence in SLL classrooms (II); variables influencing occurrence of "uptake" (III). These issues are further discussed in light of the present research findings in 6.4.5.

I Impact on language learning

Recently, there has been considerable research on uptake (some researchers use the term 'modified output' to refer to uptake) (Mackey et al, 2000; Oliver, 2000; Ellis et

al, 2001a; Panova and Lyster, 2002; McDonough, 2005). Some researchers argue that learner "uptake" may play a positive role in promoting learners' second language development (McDonough, 2005; Loewen, 2005); others, even though admit that "uptake" may be an important and observable source for understanding the impact of the feedback, doubt that it may lead to long-term learning (Nabei and Swain, 2002; Morris and Tarone, 2003). The researchers argue that "learner's uptake may not fully represent their cognitive processing of the feedback" (Nabei and Swain (2002: 45).

Specifically, Morris and Tarone (2003: 328) suggest that "uptake, in the form of "recast" repetition, may not be a reliable indicator of acquisition". Similarly, Nabei and Swain (2002: 45) point out that a "learner's immediate response after "recast" feedback might not be appropriate evidence for evaluating its effect [i.e., for assuming that acquisition has taken place]"[16].

However, unlike Morris and Tarone (2003) and Nabei and Swain (2002), McDonough (2005) conciders that uptake (he calls it "modified output") "may contribute to target language development by strengthening knowledge representation that learners already have stored and by encouraging automatic retrieval of linguistic forms" (McDonough, 2005: 83). The researcher found that when learners produced more complex or accurate forms in their modified output, they were more likely to produce these forms in their subsequent utterances. This finding is viewed by the researchers as evidence of "uptake" facilitating learners' advancing through developmental stages.

Similarly, Loewen (2005) observed that successful uptake in "focus on form" episodes served as a significant predictor of correct test scores, further evidence to support the assumption that uptake may promote language development. The researcher also found that learners benefitted from "incidental focus on form" especially when they incorporated the targeted linguistic items into their own

[16] Yet, Ishida (2004) observed that overall learner accuracy increased significantly in correlation with the number of "recasts" provided during the treatment period, and the accuracy rate was retained. This finding suggests that "recasts", followed or not by learner "uptake", may probably promote language development.

language production: in other words when they produced "uptake" following the teacher's feedback.

In this section I reviewed research in relation to the impact of "uptake" on L2 development. In the next section, I review research on occurrence of learner "uptake" in the language learning classrooms.

II Occurrence in SLL classrooms

Since the research provides evidence that "uptake" may promote L2 learning, it becomes interesting to investigate the rates of learner "uptake" in the language classrooms.

Mackey et al (2000) conducted an observational study which revealed that "uptake" after feedback occurred in more than half (52%) of all episodes, which is quite a high rate. Similarly, Ellis et al (2001a), when conducting an observational study which investigated learner "uptake" in "incidental focus on form", found that learner "uptake" was generally high and successful in examined immersion classrooms.

However, Panova and Lyster (2002) in their observational study, which examined the range and types of feedback used by the teacher and their relationship to learner "uptake" and immediate "repair", found that rates of learner "uptake" and immediate "repair" of error were low in the examined classroom.

Nabei and Swain (2002), using findings from Oliver's (1995) study, explain why it may be that some researchers observe low frequency of "uptake" in their classrooms. Findings from Oliver's study revealed that when turns in which the non-native speaker's (i.e., learner's) incorporation of a native speaker (i.e., teacher) "recast" were either impossible (for example, when a topic continuation move took place) or inappropriate (for example, when an "uptake" move was not expected) were excluded, the proportion of non-native speaker's incorporations of native speaker's "recasts" (i.e., appearance of uptake) increased from 10% to 35%. Thus, Nabei and Swain suggest that as teachers quite often do not provide opportunities for learners to

repair their utterances, then the episodes which contain such instances should not be counted when calculating the number of "uptake" moves and "repair".

One more finding in favour of "uptake" is provided by Oliver's (2000) study. In it the researcher examined whether differences exist in the provision and use of "negative feedback", according to the age of the learners and the context of interaction. The findings demonstrated that when the opportunity was available, and when it was appropriate to do so, *all* learners (adults and children) *often* used feedback in their subsequent language production. In other words, they often produced modified output, i.e. "uptake".

Having reviewed research that focused on "uptake" rates in the language classrooms I now turn to investigating variables that may influence occurrence of "uptake" following "corrective feedback".

III Variables influencing occurrence of uptake

I already mentioned (2.6.2 - III) that corrective feedback may serve different purposes. When corrective feedback is used to promote learner "uptake" it is suggested that *implicit eliciting feedback* types are used. Findings from McDonough's (2005) study support this argument in that clarification requests positively correlated with both ESL question development and modified output.

A second variable that seems to be affecting occurrence of learner uptake, according to Ellis et al (2001a), is *the complexity of an episode*. The researchers found that when the negotiation episodes were complex (i.e., included more than three turns: initiation (learner's error), response (teacher's corrective feedback), and follow up (uptake)) the rates of learner uptake were higher.

Next, it was noticed by the researchers that when learners understood what was corrected, they were more likely to modify their output after correction. Mackey et al (2000) found that learners seemed to have generally accurate perceptions about those feedback episodes for which they had "uptake". Therefore, the third variable that

may be affecting rates of learner "uptake" is *learner understanding of the source of problem.*

It is also suggested by some researchers that *explicit language-focused exchanges* (not to be confused with explicit corrective feedback) may lead to higher uptake rates. Oliver and Mackey (2003) found that learners were most likely to use feedback when provided in explicit language-focused exchanges (85% of the time there was modified output, i.e., uptake).

Finally, it was observed by Ellis et al (2001a) that students were more likely to uptake a form (i.e., incorporate it into an utterance of their own) if the *"focus on form"* episode was initiated by themselves, i.e. was *"student-initiated"*, but not "teacher-initiated". A similar observation was made by the same researchers in another study (Ellis et al, 2001b) which examined "incidental" and "transitory focus on form" and investigated learner uptake in "incidental focus on form" episodes. The results of this study also showed that uptake was higher and more successful in "student-initiated focus on form" than in "teacher-initiated focus on form", and that overall it was high in examined classrooms.

Furthermore, Basturkmen et al (2002), when conducting an observational study which aimed to identify the relationship between the use of metalanguage and the occurrence of student "uptake" moves in "focus on form" in communicative classrooms, found that there was a significant relationship between "student-initiated focus on form", their use of metalanguage and the appearance of "uptake".

Below I summarise the key findings from the research reviewed in this section (2.5.3):

- *Impact of "uptake" on language learning:* The research evidence suggests that "uptake" may promote L2 development (McDonough, 2005; Loewen, 2005); But some researchers doubt this claim, particularly in relation to "uptake" following "recasts" (Nabei and Swain, 2002; Morris and Tarone, 2003).
- *"Uptake" in SLL classrooms:* The rates of learner "uptake" were found to be generally high in the language classrooms (Mackey et al, 2000; Oliver, 2000;

Ellis et al, 2001a). However, Panova and Lyster (2002) observed low rates of uptake.

- *Variables influencing occurrence of "uptake":* Occurrence of "uptake" may be influenced by the following variables: (1) type of feedback – implicit eliciting feedback (McDonough, 2005); (2) complexity of "focus on from" episode (Ellis et al, 2001a); (3) learner understanding of the source of problem (Mackey et al, 2000); (4) explicitness of language-focused exchanges (Oliver and Mackey, 2003); (5) "student initiated focus on from" (Ellis et al, 2001a and 2001b; Basturkmen et al, 2002).

Having reviewed research on "focus on from" (2.5.1), drawing to research on "corrective feedback" (2.5.2) and "uptake" (2.5.3) I now turn to reviewing methodological considerations of these studies and identify implications for the present study. All the studies reviewed have direct relevance to the present research.

2.6 Methodological considerations and implications

As evidenced from the above reviews (2.5), there have been a number of SLA studies in which "focus on form", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" were relatively significant topics of investigation. The main design features and findings of these studies are presented in Table 2.3 below. All the studies reviewed were culled from personal reading of SLA journals, suggestions from my supervisor and online database searches[17].

[17] I searched University of Bristol Educational Library database for the studies on "focus on form" by systematically reviewing the most recent issues of widely known and recognised journals on SLA. Appendix 2.2 presents the table of my systematic reviews.

Table 2.3: Review of research on "focus on from", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" (1990 - 2008)

No.	Study	Typeof study	Focus	Methodology/Analysis	Main Findings
1.	**Lightbown and Spada (1990)**	Observational	Focus on form	Approximately 100 ESL learners, whose native language is French, aged 10-12 years. They received a 5 month intensive ESL course in either grade 5 or grade 6 in elementary school. A modified version of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme was used to collect the observation data from the four classes (approximately 20 hours per class) - macro-level analysis. A revised and expanded section of Part B was used with a 2-hour segment of the observation data for each class - micro-level analysis.	1. Accuracy, fluency, and overall communicative skills are probably best developed through instruction that is primarily meaning-focused but in which guidance is provided through timely form-focus activities and correction in context. 2. Form-based instruction within a communicative context contributes to higher levels of linguistic knowledge and performance.
2.	**Lyster and Ranta (1997)**	Observational	Corrective feedback / uptake	Six French immersion classrooms. Four grade 4 classrooms and two grade 6 classrooms. 13 French language arts lessons and 14 subject-matter lessons (science, social studies, and maths) are observed. The audio-recordings of observed lessons are produced in stereo. The teachers continued with their regular programme while recordings were made and while observers coded classroom activities using Part A of the COLT coding scheme, which was adapted for use in immersion classrooms. Study focused exclusively in analysis of teacher-student interaction. Coding categories are developed by combining certain categories from COLT part B coding scheme and certain categories from Doughty's analysis of fine-tuned feedback; error treatment sequences identified in the transcripts are coded; transcripts imported into COALA.	1. There is an overwhelming tendency for teachers to use recasts in spite of their ineffectiveness at eliciting student-generated repair. 2. Other feedback types – elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition – lead to student-generated repair more successfully and are thus able to initiate the negotiation of form.
3.	**Seedhouse (1997)**	Exploratory	Dual focus on form and meaning	Search of a database of L2 lesson transcripts for evidence that dual focus on form and meaning can be achieved in practice. Very narrow and rigid criteria were adopted. Only one episode was found to correspond to the stated criteria.	1. Reactive focus on form can be provided without unduly interfering with the focus on meaning in a classroom context in cases when the teacher draws attention to form implicitly; 2. Episodes which had dual focus on meaning and form were rare in the data.

4.	**Spada (1997)**	Review of research	Focus on form	30 studies (1982-1997), including descriptive/interpretive, quasi-experimental classroom-based studies, and experimental laboratory-based research.	1. Learners who benefited most from instruction were those who received form-focused instruction which was operationalised as a combination of metalinguistic teaching and corrective feedback provided within an overall context of communicative practice. 2. The overall results of classroom research with young school-age learners suggest that form-focused instruction in communicative programs may require explicit information and/or corrective feedback when the L2 is learned via content-based instruction.
5.	**Doughty and Varela (1998)**	Experimental	Focus on form	34 middle school students from two intact classes studying science at an intermediate ESL level. Age range 11-14 years old. All students completed and reported on six science experiments, each taking 1 or 2 weeks to complete. The first, the fifth, and the sixth (oral and written) reports served as pre-test, post-test and delayed (after 2 months) post-tests, respectively. During the experiments the treatment group received focus on form instruction in addition to science content instruction, whereas the control group received only the science content instruction. Both teachers returned to the content-only regular instruction during the 2-months interval between the two post-tests. In order to perform an interlanguage analysis of the data, the framework of coding decisions was developed. Then the data were coded independently.	1. It IS possible to incorporate a focus on form with no risk to the content curriculum as long as the tasks are carefully created and incorporated into authentic content lessons already in place. 2. Learners who received focus on form instruction improved in both accuracy and total number of attempts at past time reference, particularly in the oral reporting of the science labs. 3. Students believe that they can pay attention to meaning, communication, and form at the same time
6.	**Harley (1998)**	Experimental	Focus on form	Six French immersion classes early in the grade 2 school year. All are mostly of English-speaking background. Class size ranges from 19 to 26. The students were pre-tested prior to the instructional treatment, post-tested at the end of 5 weeks, and post-tested again 6 months later, at the end of school year.	1. Instructional focus on form can have a lasting impact on the second language proficiency of learners as young as 7 or 8 years of age.

				Scores of the delayed post-tests were compared with end-of-year scores on the same tests for six classes of grade 2 students from the previous school year who had not received the experimental treatment.	
7.	**Lyster (1998a)**	Observational	Corrective feedback / recasts / uptake	Young learners in 4 French immersion classrooms at the elementary level. The teachers continued with their regular programme while recordings were made and while observers coded classroom activities using Part A of the COLT coding scheme, which was adapted for use in immersion classrooms. The recordings were transcribed. Following Doughty (1994), transcripts selected for analysis were imported into COALA, which allowed to code and quantify the data using researchers'-defined coding categories pertaining to error types, feedback types, and learner repair. The analytic model adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997) was used to code the interactional data.	1. Lexical errors favoured the negotiation of form. 2. Grammatical and phonological errors invited recasts, but with differential effects in terms of learner repair. 3. Negotiation of form proved to be more effective at leading to immediate repair than did recasts or explicit correction, particularly for lexical and grammatical errors, but not for phonological errors. 4. Phonological repairs resulted primarily from recasts.
8.	**Mackey and Philp (1998)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / recasts	35 adult ESL learners from two private language schools. Age range from 15 to 30; mixed L1 background. Study compared two groups of learners who received interactionally modified input with learners who received the same input containing recasts. 'Ready'/'Unready' groups; Tests: pre-tests, post-tests.	1. For more advanced learners interaction with intensive recasts may be more beneficial than interaction alone in facilitating an increase in production of targeted higher-level morphosyntactic forms. 2. Recasts may be beneficial for short-term interlanguage development even though they are not incorporated in learners' immediate responses; 3. Recasts did not enable learners to acquire forms that they were not developmentally ready to acquire.
9.	**Williams (1999)**	Observational	Pre-emptive focus on form	8 learners (two from each of four levels) with different language background aged from 18 to 28 learning English in order to study at college. Duration of the study – 8 weeks. The data consists of approximately 65	1. Focus on form arose more frequently in learner-generated requests to the teacher about language; 2. More proficient learners paid more attention to form than less proficient;

				hours of audio-taped listening-speaking classes at the intensive English program. Each participant was taped twice a week for 45 minutes in classes that lasted for two and a half hours. The recordings include all of the participants' speech as well as all speech directed at them from close range, either from the teacher or from classmates.	3. Learners did initiate focus on form but not very often; 4. If they did, their attention was greatly focused on lexical aspects of the language.
10.	**Mackey et al (2000)**	Observational	Corrective feedback / recasts/ uptake	10 adult learners of ESL (English as second language) and 7 adult learners of IFL (Italian as a foreign language) enrolled in language courses at a U. S. university. All had beginner or lower-intermediate level of target language proficiency. Learners received feedback focused on a range of morphosyntactic, lexical, and phonological forms. After completing the tasks, they watched video-tapes of their previous interactions and were asked to introspect about their thoughts at the time the original interactions were in progress. Analysis: interactional feedback episodes: phonological, morphosyntactic, lexical, semantic; stimulated-recall comments: lexis, semantics, phonology, morphosyntax, no content, unclassified. Interrater reliability – 93% (interaction data) and 80% (stimulated recall data).	1. The learners were relatively accurate in their perceptions about lexical, semantic, and phonological feedback; 2. The nature as well as the content of the feedback may have affected learners' perceptions; 3. All of the feedback provided to the learners of the ESL data set was implicit negative feedback; 4. Morphosyntactic feedback was rarely perceived as being about morphosyntax, and it was most often provided in the form of a recast; 5. Uptake after feedback appeared in a little more than half (52%) of all episodes; Learners had generally accurate perceptions about those feedback episodes for which they had uptake; 6. For the majority of the episodes in which learners did not modify their output, they also did not report perceiving the target of the feedback.
11.	**Muranoi (2000)**	Quasi-experimental	Focus on form	91 first-year Japanese college students in three intact EFL classes at a university in Japan. Two different interaction enhancement treatments (IE treatment is a treatment that guides learners to focus on form by providing interactional modifications and leads to produce modified output within a problem-solving task) were employed: IE + formal debriefing and IE + meaning-	1. Interaction enhancement had positive effects on the learning of English articles; 2. The interaction enhancement plus formal debriefing treatment had a greater impact than the interaction enhancement plus meaning-focused debriefing treatment.

				focused debriefing. Outcomes of these treatments were compared with the effects of non-enhanced interaction. Progress was measured with a pre-test and two post-tests. Two experimental groups and a contrast group. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.	
12.	**Nassaji and Swain (2000)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / ZPD	2 adult L2 learners enrolled in a five-week intensive intermediate writing class in an ESL program in a university in Canada. Two types of error treatment procedure. A ZPD error treatment procedure (learner received corrective feedback within her ZPD) and a non-ZPD treatment procedure (learner received random feedback, i.e. feedback which was provided regardless of the student's ZPD). Each learner was tutored for a total period of 4 sessions (40 minutes each). Sessions were tape-recorded, transcribed and then analysed. In addition students were tested for any improvement in the final tutoring session. Use of qualitative, quantitative and process-product data analyses.	1. Help provided within the ZPD was more effective than help provided randomly; ZPD learner over-performed non-ZPD learner on a final composition. 2. More learning took place in the case of the ZPD learner versus the non-ZPD learner; 3. Much of the time, the random prompts failed to help the non-ZPD learner. 4. However, there were instances when the non-ZPD learner also benefited from the tutor's help: there was a tendency for more direct and explicit prompts to be more useful than less direct implicit prompts.
13.	**Oliver (2000)**	Observational	Corrective feedback / uptake	10 teachers working with adult ESL learners and 10 teachers working with primary-school-aged ESL learners (aged 6-12 years). All teachers are experienced ESL teachers. All learners (adults and young children) had similar proficiency level – intermediate. There were also 16 adult dyads and 16 children dyads. Teachers were video- and audio-recorded teaching two lessons as well as dyads working on their two tasks. Transcripts were made of the first 100 utterances of each teacher-fronted lesson and of each of the one and two way tasks. All the transcripts were checked by a second trained observer. Reliability ~ 97%. Coding: 1) ESL student's/NNS's initial turn; 2) ESL teacher's/NS's response; 3) ESL student's/NNS's reaction; 4) pattern of interaction.	1. In both teacher-fronted and pair-work tasks, learners were consistently and frequently provided with negative feedback; 2. Even though teachers provided a similar proportion of recasts to adult and child learners, adult learners were more likely to receive negative feedback from the teachers in the form of negotiation strategy; 3. When the opportunity was available, and when it was appropriate to do so, all learners (adults and children) often used feedback in their subsequent language production;

				Analysis: long-linear analysis was used to compare the overall pattern of interactions between adult and children in two contexts; a chi-square procedure was used to compare each part of the exchange and the patterns of interaction for adults and children.	4. For both adults and children teachers provided more feedback than did the native speaking partners; 5. Learners were more likely to ignore negative feedback in the pair work situation than they were in the teacher-fronted lessons.
14.	**Ellis et al (2001a)**	Observational	Pre-emptive focus on form	Two classes with 12 students in each (5 male and 7 female) learning English as a foreign language; students are representatives of variety of different nationalities; their level of English language proficiency varied from pre-intermediate to intermediate. The students are studying at private English language school in Auckland, New Zealand. Two teachers who were not aware that the researchers intended to examine focus on form. They were told that the aim of the study was to examine classroom interaction during meaning-centred lessons. The study consisted of two main stages. The first stage was identification of focus on form episodes in a corpus of audio recordings taken from naturally occurring language lessons. The second stage was a detailed description of the focus on form episodes found in the data, including quantification of aspects of them. Use of Pearson's chi-square tests using SPSS, 1998.	1. In 12 hours of meaning-focused instruction, there were as many pre-emptive focus on form episodes as reactive focus on form episodes; 2. The majority of the pre-emptive focus on form episodes were initiated by students rather than the teacher and dealt with vocabulary. 3. Students were more likely to *uptake* a form (i.e., incorporate it into an utterance of their own) if the focus on form episode was student initiated; 4. The pre-emptive focus on form episodes were typically direct, that is, they dealt with form explicitly rather than implicitly; 5. Direct focus on form episodes did not appear to interfere unduly with the communicative flow of the teaching.
15.	**Ellis et al (2001b)**	Observational	Focus on form	Two ESL classes of 12 students. One intermediate class, other pre-intermediate class. Data: 14 hours of audio-recorded classroom talk from 10 ESL lessons. The focus on form episodes examined in the study all occurred in the communicative activities. Analysis: 1. Identifying focus on form episodes (FFEs);	1. Learner uptake was generally high and successful than has been reported for immersion classrooms; 2. Uptake was higher and more successful in reactive focus on form and in student-initiated focus on form than in teacher-initiated focus on form;

				2. Coding types of FFEs; 3. Coding the general characteristics of the FFEs; 4. Identifying and coding uptake moves. Statistical analysis using SPSS 9.0.	3. The level of uptake was also influenced by the complexity of an episode; 4. Focus on form can occur without disturbing the communicative flow of a classroom, and the classroom context can affect the amount of uptake.
16.	**Basturkmen et al (2002)**	Observational	Focus on form	12 adult students learning EFL with English language proficiency varying from pre-intermediate to intermediate level. Students were studying at private English-language school in Auckland, New Zealand. Two teachers. The study involved the collection of 12 hours of audio-recorded language teaching taken from five lessons in one intermediate classroom and five lessons in one pre-intermediate classroom. Interaction between learners not involving the teacher was not recorded. Transcripts were analysed for presence of focus-on-form episodes in them. After the focus-on-form episodes were coded for metalanguage and uptake, they were subjected to Pearson's or Fisher's Exact Chi-square tests in order to determine if there were any statistically significant relationships.	1. In the communicative lessons observed metalanguage did occur in focus-on-form and it was largely of a non-technical nature and was more likely to be used by the teacher. 2. Metalanguage occurred variably: more frequently in pre-emptive focus-on-form than in reactive focus-on-form. 3. In student-initiated pre-emptive focus-on-form, there was a significant relationship between the presence of metalanguage and the presence of uptake.
17.	**Ellis (2002)**	Review of research	Focus on form	11 studies (1989- 2000)	1. Focus on form can contribute to the acquisition of implicit knowledge; 2. Two variables appear to influence focus on form instruction's success – the choice of the target and the extent of the instruction.
18.	**Han (2002)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / recasts	Eight adult L2 learners with upper-intermediate level of English proficiency enrolled in a one-semester intensive English course in the Community English Program at a university in the United States. Use of pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test with two groups of four subjects. The recast group received recasts; the non-recast group received no recasts. 11 sessions over a period of 2 months. Narrations were tape-recorded and transcribed separately for each group. Reliability of coding 99%. Use of statistical analysis.	1. Recasts were successful in the study in that they highlighted the L2 learners' awareness and led to considerable improvement in their tense consistency during oral and written performance. 2. Individualized attention, consistent focus, developmental readiness, and intensity are the conditions which may be necessary for recasts to facilitate learning.

19.	**Nabei and Swain (2002)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / recasts	One ESL learner, 19-year-old college student in Japan, with upper-intermediate level of English language proficiency. Research involved 8 identical cycles of a set procedure. (1) Classroom observation and video-taping of a 70 minute class period; (2) test within a week of the video-taping; (3) a stimulated recall interview. Data was transcribed and analysed for recast episodes and for three types of awareness: attention to meaning, attention to form and noticing feedback. Inter-coder reliability 89%. Data analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively.	1. Teacher's feedback in general was extremely infrequent; 2. Recasting was the feedback move most frequently employed by the teacher; 3. The learner was more likely to notice teacher feedback in the group contexts than in teacher-fronted interaction; 4. The teacher's recasts did not contribute a lot to the learner's immediate learning of the language; 5. The 'repeated experience' and 'talking about experience' with which the research provided the learner, seemed to have influenced her learning (improvement in language from Test 1to Test 2)
20.	**Panova and Lyster (2002)**	Observational	Corrective feedback / recasts / uptake	ESL classroom in an adult educational centre. Class of 25 students; age range from 17 to 55. Proficiency level – early intermediate. Observation and audio recording of 18 hours of (usual) classroom interaction during 4 weeks; field notes. 10 hours transcribed and coded in accordance with the categories identified in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of corrective discourse. All student utterances with errors were counted. Errors were coded as phonological, grammatical, or lexical.	1. A clear preference for implicit types of reformulative feedback, namely, recasts and translation, leaving little opportunity for other feedback types that encourage learner-generated repair. 2. Rates of learner uptake and immediate repair of error are low in the examined classroom.
21.	**Iwashita (2003)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / recasts	55 learners of Japanese (18-22 years old) enrolled in a beginner level course at an Australian University and 55 Japanese NSs. All participants randomly assigned to either the treatment (41 dyads) or control (14 dyads) group; all took a pre-test; then treatment group participants carried out three communication tasks with a NS conversation partner; the control group participants talked with a NS partner on any topic of their choice. A post-test was administered immediately after the	1. Although native speaker interactional moves containing positive evidence about the two target structures were 10 times more frequent during task-based language learning than those containing implicit negative feedback, only learners who had an above-average score on the pre-test benefited from the positive evidence provided.

				treatment or free conversation, and a delayed post-test was given 1 week later. The NNSs' oral production in all phases of the study was audio-recorded and later transcribed using standard orthography. Interactional episodes during the treatment were identified following the three-part sequence identified by Oliver (1995); NNS initial turn, NS response, and NNS reaction. The interaction patterns used for coding these episodes were also developed following Oliver's categories (1995, 1996, 2000).	2. Implicit negative feedback had beneficial effect on short-term development of the grammatical targets regardless of the learner's current mastery of the target structures. 3. Recasts have a larger impact than other conversational moves on short-term L2 grammatical development
22.	**Mennim (2003)**	Experimental	Reactive focus on form	University students learning EFL with TOEFL score between 500 and 550, researcher. Two weeks before their final presentation, each group of three students performed a private rehearsal, with the researcher as the only listener. The rehearsals lasted approximately 20 minutes, and were tape-recorded. Then the students were asked to transcribe a five-minute segment, which included equal contributions from each of them. The students first of all transcribed the extract 'warts and all', including any errors that they made. They produced a typed transcript with double-spacing, and made their own corrections in red pen. When they were finished, the researcher took the copy and indicated any corrections or improvements that the students had missed. This completed the task, and the paper was returned to students one week before they were due to give the final presentation. The final presentation was also recorded, and the researcher then transcribed the section corresponding to the part that had been transcribed from the rehearsal.	1. Students managed to recall many of the corrected forms and reformulations; 2. The final presentation showed improvements in pronunciation and grammar, and in the organisation of content.
23.	**Morris and Tarone (2003)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / recasts / social context	10 participants, beginning foreign language learners of Spanish at a large Midwestern university. Mean age 19 years. Use of pre-test, immediately after it participants formed pairs and participated in a communicative task (gap activity). The students did not know one another well. Use of post-test immediately after completion of the communicative task. In a week time use of a delayed post-test. In one more week time – stimulated recall sessions.	1. Although learners corrected each other's errors using recasts, in several cases the learners continued to produce the erroneous form in post-tests; 2. Negative feelings about their conversation partners seemed to have caused some learners to interpret recasts not as helpful corrective feedback, but as criticism;

				Coding: explicit correction, recasts, negotiation. 100% agreement. Use of qualitative data analysis.	3. Learners' failure to identify recasts accurately as corrective feedback in response to morpho-syntactic errors affected their acquisition of these recast forms.
24.	**Oliver and Mackey (2003)**	Observational	Corrective feedback	5 Australian ESL teachers with average of 7.6 years of experience in teaching ESL, and their primary school students between 6 and 12 years old with low level of English language proficiency. Observation over the period of 14 weeks. Video recording were made on one randomly selected full teaching day in each of the 5 classes. For each class the first 150 clear and complete three-part exchanges (initial learner's utterance, teacher's response, and learner's reply to the teacher's response) were transcribed. Coding: negotiation, recasts, explicit feedback. Exchanges: content, management, communication, and explicit language-focused. Agreement: 98.5%. Use of quantitative data analysis.	1. Teachers were most likely to provide feedback in exchanges that were focused on explicit language and content; 2. Learners were most likely to use feedback provided in explicit language-focused exchanges (in 85% of the time there was modified output); 3. Feedback was seldom used in content exchanges and never in management context; 4. Learner errors seem to increase when attention is focused on meaning rather than on form; 5. Learners can and do modify their output following recasts, but much more in certain types of contexts than in others.
25.	**Basturkmen et al (2004)**	Observational	Incidental focus on form	Three male teachers working in private English-language school in Auckland, New Zealand, all native speakers of English. The study involved a combination of observational (one lesson for each of the three teachers, audio-recorded) and self-report data (included statements of teachers' beliefs about focus on form elicited from them through the use of in-depth interviews, cued response scenarios and stimulated recall).	1. There were some inconsistencies in the teachers' stated beliefs, in particular in relation to when it is legitimate to take time out from a communicative activity to focus on issues of form, and preferred error correction technique.
26.	**Ishida (2004)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / recasts	4 undergraduate students taking either a 4^{th}- or 5^{th} semester Japanese language course at a university in the United States. Each learners participated twice a week in 30-min, one-on-on conversation session with an L1 Japanese-speaking interlocutor, for a total	1. Overall accuracy increased significantly in correlation with the number of recasts provided during the treatment period, and the accuracy rate was retained.

				of eight sessions. Use of comparable pre-tests, post-tests and delayed post-tests. All participants received a recasting treatment. Coding: learner utterance, feedback, lexical aspect, and aspectual meanings. Counting: use of statistical analysis – repeated-measures analysis of variance (RNOVR), Helmert analysis, and implicational scale analysis.	2. Learners' prior knowledge of the target form contributed to the positive effects of recasting.
27.	**Loewen (2004)**	Observational	Incidental focus on form	118 students learning ESL; average age of students was 22 years old, some 17 years old, their level of language proficiency ranged from low to upper-intermediate. Learners were studying at private English-language school in Auckland, New Zealand. 12 teachers. 32 hours of meaning-focused lessons were observed and audio-recorded. Focus on form episodes were identified then coded in accordance with developed categories. Raw frequencies and percentages were calculated for the coding categories in the characteristics of the focus on form episodes. All inferential statistics were calculated using SPSS 10.0 (use of Chi-square analysis and logistic regression).	1. Complex, immediate focus on form episodes with elicit responses were more likely to result in uptake; 2. Complex, code-related, reactive, immediate, and heavy focus on form episodes with elicit responses were more likely to lead to successful uptake.
28.	**Lyster (2004)**	Quasi-experimental	Focus on form	Four teachers and eight classes of 179 fifth grade (10-11-year-old) students. The form-focused treatment was implemented in the context of regular subject-matter instruction by three of the four teachers, each with two classes, for approximately 9 hours during a 5-week period, while the fourth teacher taught the same subject matter without form-focused instruction to two comparison classes. Additionally, each of the three FFI teachers implemented a different feedback treatment: recasts, prompts, or no feedback.	1. Analysis of pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test results showed a significant increase in the ability of students exposed to focus on form instruction to correctly assign grammatical gender. 2. Results of the written tasks in particular, and to a lesser degree the oral tasks, revealed that focus on form instruction is more effective when combined with prompts than with recasts or no feedback.
29.	**Mackey et al (2004)**	Observational	Incidental focus on form	18 teachers: 9 experienced (4 male and 5 female) with MA degree in TESOL with teaching experience around 10 years, and 9 inexperienced (3 male and 6 female) – all university undergraduate students enrolled in an introduction to TESOL methods class. Each teacher taught one 30-minute lesson. The lesson plans and materials	1. Experienced ESL teachers used incidental focus on form techniques more frequently than inexperienced teachers. 2. Inexperienced teachers seemed to benefit from the teacher education workshop that was designed

				were available to teachers 48 hours prior to their teaching session. The data were transcribed using the audio recordings. Videotapes were also used to identify relevant nonverbal behaviour. The coding system was developed, it consisted of four categories. The difference in the number of techniques used by the experienced and inexperienced teachers was compared using individual Mann-Whitney tests.	to encourage reflection on and awareness of incidental focus on form in the L2 classroom, although they did not all translate this awareness into consistent practice right away.
30.	**Sanz and Morgan-Shot (2004)**	Experimental	Explicit negative feedback / positive evidence	Computer-assisted study. 142 students enrolled in first- or second-year Spanish language courses at Georgetown University. All L1 speakers of English. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups: 1) received two types of explicit information (explicit rule presentation and explicit negative feedback); 2) received only explicit rule explanation; 3) received only explicit negative feedback; 4) received no explicit information (had only practice). The treatment consisted of four different lessons completed in one session. Use of pre-test and post-test. Quantitative analysis was done by means of Power analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVAs), and a three-way repeated-measures ANOVA.	1. All groups improved significantly and similarly on interpretation and production tests; 2. Explicit information may not necessarily facilitate second language acquisition and exposing learners to task – essential practice is sufficient to promote acquisition.
31.	**Sheen (2004)**	Comparative / Observational	Corrective feedback / recasts / uptake	Four communicative classroom settings: Canada immersion (Lyster and Ranta, 1997), Canada ESL (Panova and Lyster, 2002), New Zealand ESL (Ellis et al., 2001b) and Korean EFL (Sheen, 2004). Lyster and Ranta's taxonomy of corrective feedback types and learner immediate uptake moves was used to compare teachers' CF and learner repair in these 4 contexts. Use of COLT coding scheme, audio-recordings and digital recordings. Length of recordings ~ 12 hours. Coding: Corrective feedback – 7 categories; uptake. All error treatment sequences were identified ad transcribed. Inter-rater reliability – 89%. Statistical analysis using SPSS 11.0: counting of frequencies, use of	1. Corrective feedback occurred frequently in all four settings with recasts being the most frequent feedback type; 2. The rates for both uptake and repair following recasts were greater in the New Zealand and Korean settings than in Canadian context; 3. The extent to which recasts lead to learner uptake and repair may be greater in contexts where the focus of the recasts is more salient, and where students are oriented to attending to linguistic form rather than meaning;

				Pearson's Chi-Square tests.	4. Provision of corrective feedback occurred without undue interference to the communicative flow of lessons.
32.	**Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005)**	Observational	Corrective feedback	11 undergraduates enrolled in English Studies at the University of the Basque Country and 10 teachers of EFL. All participants watched an excerpt from a commercially produced teaching video twice. Then they were asked to detect the error-correction moves made by the teacher, classify them, judge their efficiency and record their opinions individually and in groups. In total there were 12 error-correction episodes.	1. A significant percentage of the teacher's error-correction moves went unnoticed; 2. Teachers and students agreed that the most effective corrections occurred when more time, longer explanations, and use of different correction strategies were used.
33.	**Loewen (2005)**	Observational	Incidental focus on form	118 young adults (56% female, 44% male) learning EFL, their language proficiency ranged from low to upper intermediate. Students were studying at private language school in Auckland, New Zealand. There were 12 intact classes participating in research and 12 different teachers. Seventeen hours of naturally occurring, meaning-focused L2 lessons were observed, focus on form episodes were identified and used as a basis for individualised test items in which participants who participated in specific focus on form episodes were asked to recall the linguistic information provided to them a day after the focus on form episode occurred and two weeks later. A chi-square analysis was performed to test for statistically significant difference in the frequency of correct responses in the immediate and delayed testing. Three regression analyses were used as well.	1. Learners were able to recall the targeted linguistic information correctly or partially correctly nearly 60% of the time one day after the focus on form episode, and 50% of the time 2 weeks later; 2. Successful uptake in a focus on form episode was found to be a significant predictor of correct test scores; 3. Incidental focus on form might be beneficial to learners, particularly if they incorporate the targeted linguistic items into their own production.
34.	**McDonough (2005)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback / uptake	60 EFL students (aged from 17 to 21 years old) enrolled in the English department at a large public university in northern Thailand. Proficiency level was not available. The study employed pre-test-post-test design. Participants were randomly divided into 4 treatment groups: 1) enhanced opportunity to modify output; 2) opportunity to modify output; 3) feedback without opportunity to modify output; 4) no feedback.	1. Modified output involving developmentally advanced questions was the only significant predictor of ESL question development; 2. Clarification requests were positively correlated with both ESL question development and modified output;

				The learners participated in three treatment sessions and completed four oral production tests over an 8-week period. Pre-tests were completed during week 1, and post-tests – during weeks 2, 5 and 8. The learners completed questionnaires during weeks 2 and 9. All learners completed the learning journals. The audio-taped data was transcribed. Identification of modified output instances (reliability 98%). Analysis of learning journals and of oral production tests. Use of quantitative data analysis.	3. Overall, the learners in the no feedback group rarely modified their question forms, and their modifications did not involve developmentally advanced questions; 4. Modified output facilitates the rate at which learners advance through developmental stages.
35.	**Davies (2006)**	Observational	Corrective feedback/ uptake	Four classes of Japanese adult learners, 12 students in each class. Level of English language proficiency varied from pre-intermediate to advanced. Classes did not have predetermined grammatical syllabus. Four TEFL teachers with at least 4 years of experience. Communicatively oriented classroom data – 24 hours - were recorded and analysed. Use of stimulated recall. Quantitative (chi-square statistical analysis) and qualitative data analyses (coding FonF episodes).	1. Recast was the most commonly used technique by the teachers; 2. Using or not using paralinguistic FonF had a significant affect on whether the episode resulted in uptake or topic continuation. When recasts and other implicit techniques were used with paralinguistic FonF – predominantly resulted in uptake. When recasts were used without paralinguistic FonF – in topic continuation
36.	**Fuente (2006)**	Experimental	Focus on form	Learners of Spanish as a second language. Adult learners, (students). 43 hours of communicative L2 instruction in Spanish. Three intact classes. Three different conditions: the PPP lesson; the task-based NEF; task-based EF. Use of immediate vocabulary test and delayed vocabulary test. Quantitative data analysis (one-way analyses of variance, mean scores, Bonferroni post hoc multiple comparisons test).	1. A task based lesson with an explicit focus on forms component was more effective than a task based lesson that did not incorporate this component in promoting acquisition of word morphological aspect; 2. Explicit focus on forms seemed to be more effective when placed at the end of the lesson, when meaning has been acquired.
37.	**Lyster and Mori (2006)**	Observational (Comparative)	Corrective feedback	French immersion setting (18.3 hours) and Japanese immersion setting (14.8 hours). Learners at the elementary school level. Six teachers. Audio recoded classroom interaction. Coding using part A of the COLT coding scheme and the error treatment sequence developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997).	1. Predominant provision of recasts over prompts and explicit correction regardless of instructional setting; 2. Recasts are effective for learners in classroom settings in which the communicative orientation

				Qualitative and quantitative (using COALA and CHILDES) data analyses.	permits regular opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy; 3. Prompts are effective for learners in classroom settings in which the communicative orientation does not favour opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy
38.	**Macaro and Masterman (2006)**	Experimental	Focus on form	12 first-year students studying French at the university. Age 18. Two groups: intensive grammar course, control group (no grammar course). Participants were tested at three points over five months, the results were compared. Qualitative and Quantitative data analyses (SPSS, v11).	1. Explicit instruction leads to gains in some aspects of grammar tests but not gains in accuracy in either translation or free composition.
39.	**Mackey (2006)**	Experimental	Focus on form (with link to self-assessment)	Two experienced ESL teachers. Interactional feedback was provided to 28 ESL adult learners (average age 24) in response to their production problems with questions, plurals, and past tense forms. Experimental and control groups. Learners' noticing was assessed through on-line learning journals, introspective comments while viewing classroom videotapes, and questionnaire responses. Through a controlled pre-test, post-test design, analyses of noticing and learning were carried out for each learner. Quantitative data analysis (Chi-square analysis)	1. There was a positive relationship between interactional feedback in the classroom, the learners' reports about noticing and their learning of L2: for question forms (83% of those who noticed learned); for plural forms (50% of those who noticed learned); for past tense forms (20% of those who noticed learned)
40.	**Revesz and Han (2006)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback	36 adult ESL learners at a university. Mean age 34.8. Use of pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test. Four groups (1) the same video group (2) the different video group (3) the same notes group (4) the different notes group. Quantitative data analysis (descriptive statistics, two-way factorial analyses of variance, eta-squared values obtained to show the effect size of the independent variables)	1. Participants who received recasts through tasks with familiar content displayed greater accuracy in their L2 oral and to a lesser extent, written production of the past progressive than those who received recasts through tasks without content familiarity;
41.	**Hanaoka (2007)**	Observational	Focus on form	37 Japanese students at a university. Advanced and intermediate level of English language proficiency.	1. The participants noticed overwhelmingly lexical features as they autonomously identified their

			(with link to self-assessment)	Students wrote a story in response to a picture prompt, compared their original writing to two native-speaker models, made immediate and delayed revisions. Noticing was operationalized as self-reports in the form of note-taking. Quantitative data analysis (mean scores, frequencies, correlational analyses).	respective problems, found solutions through models, and incorporated them in subsequent revisions; 2. More proficient learners noticed significantly more features than less proficient learners when they compared their original output with two models; 3. Among the features of the models that the participants noticed, those that were related to the problems that they had noticed through output were incorporated at a higher rate and were also retained longer than unrelated features.
42.	**Mackey et al (2007)**	Experimental	Corrective feedback (with link to peer-assessment)	Forty children, 7.5 – 8 years old. Intermediate level of English language proficiency. Children were paired to form 10 male-male and 10 female-female learner dyads. Three groups: (1) unfamiliar communicative tasks in terms of content and procedure; (2) procedurally familiar tasks; (3) tasks familiar in both content and procedure. Transcriptions of the first 100 utterances in each task. Coding using Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) scheme Qualitative and quantitative data analysis.	1. Learners working through unfamiliar tasks (in terms of both content and procedure) produced more clarification requests and confirmation checks and provided more corrective feedback on non-targetlike utterances to each other; 2. Learners engaged in procedurally familiar tasks had more opportunities to use feedback; 3. Learners engaged in tasks that were familiar in both content and procedure showed more actual use of feedback
43.	**Mennim (2007)**	Observational	Focus on form (with link to self-assessment)	First-year students at a private Japanese university. 18-20 years old. TOEFL score 500 or above. Duration of course: 9 months. Records of students' noticing were tracked throughout the year and recordings of their oral output made over the same period were analysed to determine whether there was any development in the use of the forms that the students had noticed. Qualitative data analysis.	1. In nine months period learners' accuracy in the use of the target word much improved, suggesting a long-term gain in language learning (noticing had a role to play).

44.	**Sheen (2007)**	Quasi-experimental	Corrective feedback	Six intact classrooms. 91 adult (21-56 years old) intermediate ESL learners. Three groups formed (1) a direct only correction group (2) a direct metalinguistic correction group and (3) a control group. Use of pre-test-treatment-post-test-delayed post-test structure. Use of statistical analysis (SPSS, 2002): descriptive and inferential statistics, correlational analysis, one way ANOVA with multiple comparison tests using Tukey, repeated measures ANOVA, and ANCOVA, Pearson product moment correlation.	1. Both treatment groups performed much better than the control group on the immediate post-tests, but the direct metalinguistic group performed better than the direct-only correction group in the delayed post-tests; 2. Focused linguistic corrective feedback (targeting a single linguistic feature) is more effective in improving learners' accuracy when it incorporates both provision of the correct form and metalinguistic explanation and is given to learners with high language analytic ability.
45.	**Bouffard and Sarkar (2008)**	Observational	Focus on form	Two grade 3 French immersion classes (forty three 8- to 9-year old children), teacher researcher. Corrective feedback was provided on lexical, phonological and grammatical errors. Video recorded oral presentations (28 sessions), group discussion – audio taped. Data were transcribed and coded using data-dependant categories. Qualitative data analysis.	1. A pedagogy oriented towards language analysis and metalanguage improves language awareness; 2.Through group interaction, learners were able to notice and repair errors, to identify language features involved, to negotiate form and to do grammatical analysis of errors; 3. Children as young as 8 are mature enough to attend to form if they are taught how to; 4. Learning of metalinguistic terminology positively influenced the speeding up of learners' analyses by enhancing their ability to analyse errors using metalanguage
46.	**Yoshida (2008)**	Observational	Corrective feedback	Three Japanese as a foreign language classrooms; a second-year level Japanese language course in Australia. Two teachers. The two-hour tutorial classes given at the beginning of the week were targeted. Audio recordings of classes (30 hours) and use of stimulated recall interviews with each participant (1-1.5 hours), detailed notes of classroom activities.	1. Both the teachers and the learners perceived that self-correction was more effective for learning than the provision of correct forms by recasts; but 2. teachers chose recasts because of the time limitation of classes and their awareness of learners' cognitive styles;

				Data were transcribed and analysed qualitatively.	3. Teachers chose elicitation or metalinguistic feedback when they regarded the learners who made erroneous utterances as being able to work out correct forms on their own; 4. Most of the learners preferred to have an opportunity to think about their errors and the correct forms before receiving correct forms by recast

Table 2.4 below provides concise overview on the focus, type, context and participants of the studies presented in Table 2.3 above.

Table 2.4: Focus, type, context and participants of the SLA studies reviewed

Study	Focus[18]	Type of study	Context[19]	Participants
Lightbown and Spada (1990)	FonF	Observational	ESL	10-12 years old
Lyster and Ranta (1997)	CF/U	Observational	Immersion	Grade 4 and 6 students
Doughty and Varela (1998)	FonF	Experimental	Immersion	11-14 years old
Harley (1998)	FonF	Experimental	Immersion	7-8 years old
Lyster (1998a)	CF/U	Observational	Immersion	Young learners
Mackey and Philp (1998)	CF	Experimental	ESL	15-30 years old
Williams (1999)	FonF	Observational	ESL	18-28 years old
Mackey et al (2000)	CF/U	Observational	ESL, EFL	University students
Muranoi (2000)	FonF	Quasi-experimental	EFL	University students
Nassaji and Swain (2000)	CF	Experimental	ESL	University students
Oliver (2000)	CF/U	Observational	ESL	6-12 years old and adult learners
Ellis et al (2001a)	CF/U	Observational	ESL	18-21 years old
Ellis et al (2001b)	FonF	Observational	ESL	Young adults
Basturkmen et al (2002)	FonF	Obsrevational	ESL	Young adults
Han (2002)	CF	Experimental	ESL	University students
Nabei and Swain (2002)	CF	Experimental	ESL	19 years old
Panova and Lyster (2002)	CF/U	Observational	ESL	17-55 years old
Iwashita (2003)	CF	Experimental	JFL	18-22 years old
Mennim (2003)	FonF	Experimental	EFL	University students
Morris and Tarone (2003)	CF	Experimental	SFL	19 years old (average)
Oliver and Mackey (2003)	CF	Observational	ESL	6-12 years old
Basturkmen et al (2004)	FonF	Observational	ESL	Teachers
Ishida (2004)	CF	Experimental	JFL	University students
Loewen (2004)	FonF	Observational	ESL	17-22 years old
Lyster (2004)	FonF	Quasi-experimental	Immersion	10-11 years old
Mackey et al (2004)	FonF	Observational	ESL	Teachers
Sanz and Morgan-Shot (2004)	CF	Experimental	SFL	University students
Sheen (2004)[20]	CF/U	Comparative / Observational	EFL	29-36 years old
Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005)	CF	Observational	EFL	University students
Loewen (2005)	FonF	Observational	ESL	Young adults
McDonough (2005)	CF/U	Experimental	EFL	17-21 years old
Davies (2006)	CF/U	Observational	EFL	Adult learners
Fuente (2006)	FonF	Experimental	SSL	Adult learners
Lyster and Mori (2006)	CF	Observational	French and	Elementary school

[18] FonF - Focus on from; CF – Corrective feedback; U - Uptake

[19] ESL – English as a second language; EFL – English as a foreign language; SFL – Spanish as a foreign language; JFL – Japanese as a foreign language; FFL – French as a foreign language.

[20] Sheen's (2004) study compared four communicative classroom settings, three of which were examined in the studies of Lyster and Ranta, (1997), Ellis et al (2001b) and Panova and Lyster (2002). The details of these studies are presented earlier in the table (rows 2, 12, and 17). The fourth setting, however, is the original setting of Sheen's observational research (2004), and only its details are revealed in this row.

		(Comparative)	Japanese immersion	learners
Macaro and Masterman (2006)	FonF	Experimental	FFL	18 years old
Mackey (2006)	FonF	Experimental	ESL	24 year old (average)
Revesz and Han (2006)	CF	Experimental	ESL	University students
Hanaoka (2007)	FonF	Observational	EFL	University students
Mackey et al (2007)	CF	Experimental	ESL	7.5-8 years old
Mennim (2007)	FonF	Observational	EFL	University students
Sheen (2007)	CF	Quasi-experimental	ESL	Adult learners
Bouffard and Sarkar (2008)	FonF	Observational	French immersion	8-9 years old
Yoshida (2008)	CF	Observational	JFL	Adult learners

It can be observed from Table 2.4 that:

- Almost all of the recent studies on "focus on form", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" were carried out in the contexts of either second language (22) or foreign language classrooms (15), with only few in the context of immersion classrooms (7);
- The majority of these studies were carried out with adult participants (34) with only a few focusing on younger learners (9);
- Quite a number of recent studies on "focus on form", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" took the form of an experimental design (20 out of 43 examined). This fact suggests that findings from experimental and observational "focus on form", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" studies may need to be interpreted and compared with caution, as conditions in these studies may be very different: natural settings versus laboratory settings. It was, for example, observed by Ellis and Sheen (2006) that in classroom situations, that is, in natural settings, "recasts" were typically of the extensive type, as opposed to many laboratory studies where "recasts" were typically focused and intensive.

The present research study differs from the research already conducted on "focus on form", "corrective feedback" and "uptake" in two major respects. These are:

- it aims to investigate a teaching context which has not been investigated much so far. Namely, it focuses on immersion classrooms in England where learners learn English not as a second or foreign language, but as an additional language;

- it takes young learners – 8-10 years old – as core participants. To date, learners of this particular age group were researched in only a few studies[21]. By researching 8-10 years old the present study adds knowledge to the limited research already conducted with primary school age learners.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter I have defined the key constructs from SLA literature on "focus on form", focusing on "corrective feedback" and "uptake", and related them to the analytical categories used in my research (2.2 - 2.4). I also reviewed and discussed previous research in these areas (2.5) and highlighted the gaps in current knowledge (2.6) that I address in my study.

In the next chapter, I introduce and discuss key constructs from the language testing and assessment research and literature in respect of "formative assessment".

[21] Within 8-10 years old: Lyster (1998a), Oliver (2000), Oliver and Mackey (2003), Lyster and Mori (2006), and Bouffard and Sarkar (2008).
Either up to 8, or from 10 upwards: Lightbown and Spada (1990), Harley (1998), Lyster (2004), Mackey et al (2007).

CHAPTER THREE FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

3.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

This chapter focuses on the language testing and assessment research in order to explore the construct of "formative assessment" in relation to "feedback", "self- and peer-assessment". The construct of "formative assessment" is used further in this study to explore whether or not, and if so, to what extent teachers' and learners' assessment strategies aimed at supporting and promoting language development were in fact formative for either the teachers and the learners, or both (5.3.3 and 5.4).

I begin with introducing the construct of "formative assessment" (3.2) in relation to "feedback" (3.2.1), "self- and peer- assessment" (3.2.2). I then review recent research on "formative assessment" (3.3). Following the literature review, I outline methodological considerations for this study and their implications (3.4). In 3.5 I summarise the key themes discussed in this chapter.

3.2 Defining formative assessment

In this section I introduce the construct of "formative assessment" and identify its main characteristics.

Before defining the construct of "formative assessment", I first introduce a number of definitions found in the academic literature. These include: "instruction embedded assessment" (Rea-Dickins, 2001: 434); "assessment for learning" (Harlen and Winter, 2004: 390); "informal assessment" (Gardner and Rea-Dickins, 2001: 163); "learner-centred assessment" (Hall and Burke, 2003: 1); "routine formative or achievement assessment" (Cumming, 2004: 7); "incidental ongoing assessment" (Hall and Burke, 2003: 15); and "short-term assessment" (DfEE, 1999: 33). All these definitions appear to refer to one and the same term – "formative assessment". In this thesis I use the terms "formative assessment" and "classroom embedded assessment" interchangeably to refer to the construct of 'formative assessment'. Below, I present major differences between "formative" and "summative" assessments.

Firstly, "formative assessment" may be characterised as assessment which is "an integral part of instruction that informs and guides teachers as they make instructional decisions" (URL[22]). It is an assessment "done *for* students to guide and enhance their learning" (ibid). "Summative assessment", on the other hand, is usually realised by means of tests at the end of larger units of instruction in order to see how students perform under special conditions. This type of assessment is often considered as assessment "done *to* students" (ibid).

Secondly, "formative assessment" may be also seen as ongoing assessment which aims to improve learning (Rea-Dickins and Gardner, 2000; Hall and Burke, 2003). Its different features may occur regularly throughout the lessons, allowing the evaluation of students' development and progress and providing feedback on students' strengths and weaknesses. "Summative assessment", however, often aims merely to measure students' achievements or performance.

Thirdly, "formative assessment" may be beneficial for both teachers and students. It may allow teachers to make "decisions about their students' progress" and may help them to determine "what is taught next and how the material is taught" (Rea-Dickins, 2001: 434). "Formative assessment" may also allow learners to self-evaluate and self-monitor their progress and performance. "Summative assessment", on the other hand, to a considerable extent, may be seen as beneficial only for teachers in that it allows them to see how well their students perform on a particular task under particular conditions.

Finally, "formative assessment" may be characterised as providing opportunities for "active interaction between teacher and students, and students and students" (ibid: 437), which can rarely be found when "summative assessment" takes place. "Summative assessment" is usually associated with 'quantitative' feedback (grades) to teachers and students, whereas "formative assessment" is likely to be associated with "qualitative" feedback. Such "qualitative" feedback strategies as "clarifications", "explanations", "suggestions", and "discussions" seem to be

[22] http://www.mmrwsjr.com/assessment.htm

providing opportunities for adjusting teaching methods and meeting the students' needs better.

In summary, core characteristics of "formative assessments" may be seen as follows:

- It is an instruction embedded assessment (Rea-Dickins, 2001: 434)
- It is assessment for learning, which aims to improve learning not to measure it (Rea-Dickins and Gardner, 2000: 238)
- It focuses on learner development (Harlen and Winter, 2004: 390);
- It allows gathering a range of information over time about learners (Gardner and Rea-Dickins, 2002: 8);
- It involves both teachers (when making ipsative judgements about the progress of their learners) (Leung, 2004: 23) and learners (when self-monitoring and self-assessing) (Gardner and Rea-Dickins, 2001: 163-164; Rea-Dickins, 2003: 82);
- It provides learners with opportunities to become engaged in sustained interaction (Rea-Dickins, 2001: 452-453);
- It requires that information about learners' progress is used for identifying further steps in their learning (Harlen and Winter, 2004: 396);
- It involves effective teacher questioning and active teacher – learner and learner – learner interactions (Rea-Dickins, 2003: 82);
- It helps to identify next steps to build on success (Assessment Reform Group, 1999: 7); to modify teaching and learning (Black and Wiliam, 1998b: 2);
- It involves qualitative feedback and allows teachers to mediate learning all the time during the lesson (Rea-Dickins and Gardner, 2000: 216);
- It enables the development of learners' skills through reflection (self-assessment and peer-assessment) (Rea-Dickins, 2001: 452-453).
- It requires that teachers not only merely accept or decline answers but look for reasoning and justifications (Leung, 2004: 31);
- It has a strong orientation towards learner cognitive development (Rea-Dickins, 2001: 437-438).

In this section I introduced the construct of "formative assessment" and presented its core characteristics. In the next section I introduce and discuss the construct of "feedback" in relation to "formative assessment".

3.2.1 Feedback

Ramaprasad (1983: 4) defines "feedback" as "information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way". To put it differently, "feedback" provided during classroom based assessment may serve as a supportive bridge which allows learners to move from where they are at the particular moment of their learning to where whey are expected to be by their teacher or programme. As stated in URL[23] and also supported by Ramaprasad (1983) and Sadler (1989) "feedback given as part of "formative assessment" may help learners become aware of any gaps that exist between their desired goal and their current knowledge, understanding, or skill and guide them through actions necessary to obtain the goal". Thus, "feedback" may be seen as one of the elements in "formative assessment". In addition to the fact that "feedback" may be formative for the learners, it may also be formative for the teachers. In URL[24] it is stated that: "feedback" may "allow learners to correct errors and may encourage teachers to modify activities in light of their effectiveness".

Rea-Dickins (2001; 2003) has highlighted that "feedback *per se* is not formative". She claims that "it is what is done with the feedback that contributes to whether it is effective in promoting processes of teaching and learning" (ibid, 2001: 457) and adds that it is actually "uptake" of the "feedback" (i.e., different types of student responses immediately following the teacher's feedback, 2.4) that may contribute to whether feedback is effective in promoting processes of teaching or learning" (Rea-Dickins, 2003: 92).

Further on, Rea-Dickins suggests that teachers can make "feedback" formative by encouraging learners "to self-monitor their work or [by] providing them with strategies for the "next steps" in an activity" (ibid: 89). In such a way it becomes clear that "formative assessment" may provide two types of feedback; the first is "feedback" itself as broadly known, which reveals to pupils "what they should be aiming for: the standard against which [they] can compare their own work" (Assessment reform group, 1999: 8), and the second is "feedforward", that is,

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[23] http://parconline.net/getvn.asp?v=8&n=9
[24] http://captain.park.edu/facultydevelopment/formative_assessment.htm

"feedback" which aims "to provide pupils with the skills and strategies for taking the next steps in their learning" (ibid: 3, 8).

Tunstall and Gipps (1996) have presented a conceptual framework of types of feedback based on their thorough empirical study where they differentiate between "evaluative" (or "judgemental") and "descriptive" (or "task-related") "feedback". The researchers suggest that "evaluative feedback" may be "either positive or negative" where "judgements are made according to explicit or implicit norms" (ibid: 393); descriptive feedback, on the other hand, may be either "achievement or improvement focused" and "relates to actual competence" (ibid). Further, Tunstall and Gipps identify two types of "descriptive feedback": type C – "specifying attainment and improvement" and type D – "constructing achievement and the way forward" (ibid). It may be observed from the last two sentences that "evaluative" (or "judgemental") "feedback" is one that may be associated with "summative assessment" and "descriptive" (or "task-related") "feedback" is a "feedback" that may be more associated with "formative assessment".

In their book on formative assessment, Hall and Burke (2003), state that "feedback" may be "the key to [...] promoting learning goals rather than performance goals". They suggest that "feedback [has the potential to] explain what is wrong and what is good about pupils work" (ibid: 52); that it may "suggest ways forward and ways of correcting [learners' work] that make sense to the learners (not just to the teacher)" (ibid: 53). As Sadler (1998, cited in Hall and Burke, 2003: 58) points out "feedback, however detailed, will not lead to improvement until a pupil understands both the feedback and how to use it in the context of their own work". Hall and Burke (2003) further suggest that "feedback may direct teacher attention to what needs to be taught and pupil attention to what needs to be learned" (ibid: 53) and what is even more important, and is another crucial characteristic of "formative feedback", is that it needs to be "integrated into teaching and learning" (ibid).

Moreover, Black and Wiliam (1998b: 9-13), after reviewing 580 articles and chapters from over 160 journals on LA, expand the notion of "feedback" even further, stating that "good feedback" may imply "training pupils in self-assessment", and providing them with "opportunities to express their understanding and thus initiate the

interaction". The authors suggest that interaction which appears during "formative assessment" and which involves "good feedback" may facilitate learning, as learning is what "formative assessment" primarily aids for.

In summary, "feedback" may be seen as potentially "formative" when:

- It aims to lead to *uptake* (Rea-Dickins, 2001);
- It is *descriptive* by nature (Tunstall and Gipps, 1996);
- It is *integrated* into teaching and learning (Hall and Burke, 2003);
- It promotes *learning goals* (Hall and Burke, 2003);
- It trains pupils in *self-assessment* (Black and Wiliam, 1998b);
- It *provides* opportunities for *interaction* which aims to lead to learning (Black and Wiliam, 1998b).

Having discussed the concept of "feedback" in relation to "formative assessment", I now turn to introducing the concepts of "self- and peer-assessment" in relation to the classroom embedded assessment and differentiate "self-assessment" or "self-monitoring" from "feedback".

3.2.2 Self- and peer- assessment

According to Sadler (1989), the distinction between "feedback" and "self-monitoring" may be made according to the source of the evaluative information. That is, "if the learner generates the relevant information [by him/herself], the procedure may be seen as part of "self-monitoring" but "if the source of information is external to the learner [for example, the teacher], [then] it may be associated with feedback". Further, Sadler suggests that the goal of many instructional systems should be seen not only in making sure that "feedback" is provided during "formative assessment" but also in "facilitating the transition from "feedback" to "self-monitoring" (ibid). Black and Wiliam (1998a: 10) state that when pupils are trained in "self-monitoring" or "self-assessment" they may be more likely to "understand the main purposes of their learning and thereby grasp what they need to do to achieve [the stated goals]".

Supporting Black and Wiliam (1998a), Harlen and Winter (2004: 404), suggest that "knowing the criteria for assessing their work may be essential for involving learners

in assessing their own work". They emphasise that a learner's ability to "self-assess" "may be a key aspect of assessment for learning because it puts the pupils in a position to manage their learning by ensuring that they know where they are without the need for the teacher to tell them what they need to improve". Hall and Burke (2003: 53) also assert that "self- and peer assessment" may empower learners to take control and assume ownership of their learning and recognize that they themselves may ultimately be responsible for their own learning". However, here the authors also caution that "learners may not necessary possess the skills for engaging in "self- and peer assessment" automatically and [...] it is the teacher's role to equip pupils with the skills and strategies for taking the next steps in their learning" (ibid).

It is suggested in literature that learners trained in "self- and peer-assessment" may gain from it in a number of ways. Firstly, "peer-assessment" may allow learners "accepting from one another criticism of their work, which they would not take seriously if made by their teacher" (Sadler, 1998 cited in Harlen and Winter, 2004: 405). Secondly, "peer-assessment" may provide opportunities for "interchange in a language that pupils themselves would naturally use" (ibid). Thirdly, "peer-assessment" may allow pupils to learn "by taking the roles of teachers and examiners of others" (ibid); and finally, "peer-assessment" may "help learners recognize each others' strengths and set up situations where they can help each other" (Harlen and Winter, 2004: 406).

Summarising the arguments presented in this section, it is suggested that "self- and peer-assessment", similar to "feedback" discussed in 3.2.1, may be used formatively in the classrooms. In other words, it may be used to support and promote learning.

In this section (3.2) I introduced the construct of "formative assessment" and discussed the concepts of "feedback", "self- and peer-assessment" in relation to the "formative assessment".

3.3 Review of research on formative assessment

In the next section I review and discuss recent research on "formative assessment" in relation to the following issues: impact on learning (3.3.1); use in the classrooms:

attitudes (3.3.2); "self- and peer-assessment" compared to teacher assessment (3.3.3) and teacher "feedback" (3.3.4). In 3.3.5 I list suggestions from research on how quality of "formative assessment" may be further improved[25].

3.3.1 Impact on learning

Several research studies are presented below to reveal the impact that "formative assessment" may have on learning.

In 1994 Fontana and Fernandes conducted an experimental study which tested the effects of regular use of pupil "self-assessment" techniques upon their academic (mathematical) performance. The study revealed that children in experimental group (i.e. those who were trained in "self-assessment") manifested significant improvements in scores on a purpose-built mathematics test when compared to a control group of children.

Furthermore, Black and Wiliam (1998b) conducted an extensive survey of the research literature on "formative assessment". This survey revealed that (1) innovations which included strengthening the practice of "formative assessment" seemed to produce significant and often substantial learning gains, and (2) improved "formative assessment" seemed to help low achieving learners the most.

Pinter (2007) provides further evidence that reinforces Black and Wiliam's (1998b) findings observing that (1) both learners (lower and higher achieving) assisted each other across the repetitions during "peer-peer interactions", and that (2) the more competent learner in particular assisted the weaker one in many different ways.

Positive impact from "formative assessment" on learning seems to be revealed in Ross's (2005) comparative study as well. The study investigated the issue of differential language learning growth from the use of "formative assessment" in direct comparison with more conventional "summative assessment" procedures. The

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[25] The construct of "formative assessment" is further discussed in relation to the present research findings in 6.3 and 6.5.

researcher found that "formative assessment" practices yield substantive skill-specific effects on learners' language proficiency growth.

Moreover, Storch (2007), investigating the merits of "pair work" by comparing "pair" and "individual work" on an editing task and by analysing the nature of "pair interaction", found that "pair work" provided learners with opportunities to use the second language for a range of functions, and that this in turn promoted language learning.

Similarly, Rea-Dickins's (2001) observational study, which illuminated different identities of classroom assessment in relation to examples from EAL teachers' professional practice, also provided the evidence in favour of "formative assessment". The study revealed that assessment activities contributed to a child's language learning in a way in which an outcomes oriented formal test could not.

Three years later, Wiliam et al's (2004) experimental study examined the achievement of secondary school students who worked in classrooms where teachers made time to develop "formative assessment" strategies. This revealed that improvements equivalent to approximately one-half of a GCSE grade per student per subject were achievable by learners involved in improved "formative assessment" procedures.

Two more studies which suggested that "formative assessment" may have beneficial effects on learning are those of McDonald and Boud (2003) and Carless (2005). McDonald and Boud's (2003) experimental study examined the effects of formal "self-assessment" training on student performance in internal examinations. It revealed that students with "self-assessment" training significantly outperformed their peers who did not receive such training in all curriculum areas.

Similarly, Carless's (2005) observational research which analysed two elements of Hong Kong school curriculum reform (change in assessment and professional development) revealed that "peer assessment" seemed to have a positive impact on pupils' learning: learners became more sensitive to grammatical errors and knew how to correct them.

Similarly, Pinter (2007) found that many positive changes occurred in learners' performance after they completed number of "peer-peer" interactive repetition tasks (for example, their performance became more fluent) and that learners were aware of these changes.

Finally, McGarrell and Verbeem (2007), in their study that examined the issues of motivating revision of drafts through "feedback", revealed that addressing developing writers' communicative purposes through an inquiring stance (that is, "formative feedback" in this case) to early drafts motivated revision and thus created opportunities for learners' to develop their writing skills.

In this section I reviewed research on "formative assessment" in relation to impact it may have on learning. In the next section I examine teacher and learner attitudes to use of "formative assessment" in the classrooms.

3.3.2 Use in the classrooms: attitudes

In 2001 Torrance and Pryor conducted research which investigated "formative classroom assessment" practices and their changes in primary schools. The researchers found that, overall, teachers seemed to be very positive about the use of "formative assessments" in their classrooms. Previously, Hasselgren (2000) stated that both teachers and pupils could approach assessment without prejudice and could put it to positive use. Similarly, in 2003, McDonald and Boud found that the introduction of "self-assessment" practices seemed to be well accepted by teachers and students.

Cheng and Warren's (2005) research which investigated reliability and the potential benefits of incorporating "peer assessment" into English language programmes supports some of these findings. The researchers found that both teachers and students reported finding "peer-assessment" exercises beneficial in terms of students' higher level cognitive thinking and facilitating a deep approach to language learning. This finding suggests a positive attitude to "formative assessment". However, the research also revealed that students seemed to have a low level of comfort and a low degree of confidence in their ability to assess their peers' language proficiency fairly

and responsibly. This finding shows quite a restrained learners' attitude to "peer-assessment".

In the same year, Carless (2005) found that in his research pupils seemed not to mind being assessed by their peers. This finding again suggests that learners possibly had positive attitudes to "formative assessment". However, Morris and Tarone's (2003) study revealed that sometimes "peer-feedback/assessment" seems to be interpreted by students as a criticism, and not help. This may particularly be the case when learners have negative feelings about their conversation partners.

Finally, most recently, Pinter (2007) explored "peer-peer" interactions of children using a spot-the-difference task in an EFL context in Hungary. The researcher found that children seemed not only to enjoy the experience of speaking English with each other but they also were able to see the benefits of "peer-peer" interaction during the task repetition exercises and were aware of positive changes that occurred in their performance.

In this section I addressed the issue of teachers' and learners' attitudes to "formative assessment". In the next section I review research that compared learner "self- and peer-assessment" with teacher assessment.

3.3.3 Self- and peer-assessment compared to teacher assessment

In 2000 Hasselgren conducted research which examined the effects of a trial of "formative assessment" material which was developed for assessing English ability of primary school pupils. The research findings suggest that most pupils were almost disconcertingly realistic about what they could and could not do in English. In other words, they could assess their abilities in ways similar to the teacher.

Similarly, Chu (2007), when investigating how students react to the power and responsibility of being decision makers in their own learning, suggested that once learners are given the opportunity to set goals, understand their needs, try out different ways of learning and select suitable strategies according to their own areas

of strength, they may become capable of deciding what makes the quality of their learning better.

However Patri's (2002) research, which investigated the agreement amongst "teacher-, self- and peer-assessments" of students in the presence of peer feedback, revealed that students had been unable to judge themselves in a manner similar to the teacher.

A similar picture of contradictory findings emerges when the quality of "peer-assessment" in comparison with teacher assessment is investigated. Patri (2002) revealed that when assessment criteria were firmly set, "peer-feedback" enabled students to judge the performance of their peers in a manner comparable to those of the teachers. However, Cheng and Warren (2005) found that students and teachers seemed to be different in their interpretations of oral and written language proficiency of assessed students. In other words, learners seemed to be assessing their peers differently from their teacher.

Based on the research findings presented above it may be suggested that even though "self-and peer-assessment" may be seen as having a positive impact on learning (3.3.1) sometimes, learner assessment may be not as good in quality as teacher assessment (3.3.3). In the next section I discuss teacher "feedback" in relation to "formative assessment".

3.3.4 Teacher feedback

In their survey, Black and Wiliam (1998b) state that the giving of marks and the grading functions are over-emphasised, while the provision of useful advice and the learning function are under-emphasised. In other words, the researchers suggest that the provision of feedback for "summative" purposes may often overlap with that for "formative" purposes.

Similarly, Cheng and Wang (2007), when conducting an interview study on a range of ESL/EFL teachers' classroom assessment practices at the tertiary level in Canada, Hong Kong, and China, found that even though teachers did provide "feedback" to

the learners in all examined settings, either individually or as a whole class, only few of them made an effort to make the assessment results of practical value to the students by providing more than just a score; only some Canadian teachers added a sub-skill score or "feedback" to their students' main score.

In their study which investigated the types of "feedback" given to children of 6 and 7 years of age, Tunstall and Gipps (1996) identified two types of descriptive "feedback" which were clearly associated with "formative assessment" (3.2.1), namely: "specifying attainment and improvement" and "constructing achievement and the way forward". It is suggested that the best way to provide this sort of "feedback" may be through giving detailed and explicit comments on learners' work. Research revealed below compares the effectiveness of different types of "feedback" – grades, grades and comments, and comments only – in order to see whether either type of "feedback" may be seen as more beneficial for learners' cognitive development than others.

In 1988 Butler conducted research which tested the effects of task-involving and ego-involving evaluation on interest and performance. The researcher has found that (1) when working on tasks requiring divergent thinking, both high and low achieving learners achieved more when given comments-only than either grades or grades-and-comments; (2) that the interest in further work (motivation) of high achievers was the same for all "feedback" conditions; and (3) that low achieving learners seemed to express most interest after comments-only. This study suggests that overall there seemed to be a preference in favour of "formative" or "descriptive feedback" types.

Another study, however, conducted by Smith and Gorard (2005) revealed different results. The research investigated the impacts of "formative assessment" strategies on the progress of students in one comprehensive secondary school, year 7. It revealed that (1) progress in the treatment group ("formative feedback" only) appeared to be substantially inferior to that of the other three groups; (2) that "feedback" provided to students in the treatment group was often poorly understood by the students and did little to enhance the learning process, and (3) that overall, students in a treatment group reported that they would prefer getting marks and comments, but not comments alone.

Having presented the research findings on teacher "feedback" (3.3.4) and learner "self and peer assessment" (3.3.3) and having identified some problems associated with the quality of these assessment strategies, I now turn to presenting research that suggest possible solutions to these and other related problems.

3.3.5 Quality of formative assessment: way forward

In their survey, Black and Wiliam (1998b: 18) state that "enhancing the quality of learning through improved "formative feedback" may take classroom time, and therefore may be in conflict where teachers feel under the pressure to "cover" a statutory curriculum". The researchers also add that "for primary school teachers particularly, there seem to be a tendency to emphasise quantity and presentation of work and to neglect its quality in relation to learning" (ibid: 6). Thus, the first problem with the use of "formative assessment" may be seen in that it may take a considerable amount of classroom time.

According to Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000), this problem can be resolved if, assessment procedures are well planned. Confirmation of this is William et al's (2004) experimental study which revealed that teachers [who had spent time on developing formative assessment strategies] did not [...] have to choose between teaching well and getting good results. In other words, it was suggested that teachers could do both – follow the curriculum and pay attention to the quality of learning – without sacrificing one for the sake of the other.

The second problem with "formative assessment" may lie in the fact that it is a relatively new strategies for the teachers and quite often they seem not to know how to make productive use of this assessment type, or of the data they collected for the purposes of assessment. Gattullo's (2000) observational study, which aimed to describe assessment implementation processes by EFL teachers in the final years of primary schools and to identify different dimensions of "formative assessment", provides evidence for this statement. Her study revealed that teachers were often not able to make productive use of information they collected for "formative assessment".

Related to the above is a problem addressed in Cheng and Wang's (2007) study. The researchers found that even though teachers in Canada and Hong Kong and China informed their students of the scoring criteria before they assessed them, many of them they did not involve students in preparing the scoring criteria, therefore they did "assessment *to* students rather than *with* them" (McMillan and Workman, 1998, cited in Cheng and Wang, 2007: 101).

Rea-Dickins and Gardner' (2000) study, in contrast to Gattullo's (ibid) study, revealed that assessment data influenced the planning of teaching by the class teacher. To put it differently, this means that the teacher was able and knew how to make productive use of assessment data she collected for improving teaching and enhancing learning. Torrance and Pryor (2001) suggest that in order to develop effective "formative assessment" skills teachers, first of all, need to develop their pedagogical self-awareness.

The third problem with "formative assessment" may be seen in that teachers often seem not to know how to provide effective "feedback" formatively. Gattullo's (2000) and Leung and Mohan's (2004) studies give evidence to confirm this statement. Gattullo's (2000) study revealed that teachers seemed not to be asking for clarification about what individual pupils have said or done, neither did they seem to be questioning why and how pupils approached or achieved a task in the way they did. Instead the teachers mostly asked questions to rehearse knowledge and/or enhance motivation. Gattullo also found that some feedback and assessment strategies were more common than others (for example; questioning, correcting, judging), at the expense of those that could be considered more beneficial for learning (for example; observing process, examining product, doing metacognitive questioning).

Similar findings were revealed by Leung and Mohan's (2004). In their observational study, which investigated teaching-assessment interactions between teachers and students, the researchers found that the pattern of student interaction showed low frequency of reason-giving and the lack of overall participation. This finding suggests that instead of asking open-ended elicitation questions teachers were probably asking closed questions which did not allow much participation from and

between the learners. Torrance and Pryor (2001: 628) suggest that "a variety of questions, intended to be perceived by students as "helping" questions, should be used to elicit understanding and guide progress". The researchers further clarify that "particularly useful forms of such questions are elicitations which invite students to clarify and to reflect on their own thinking" (ibid).

In this section I outlined some problems related to quality use of "formative assessment" and using arguments of well known researchers suggested solutions to these problems.

Below I summarise the key findings from the research reviewed in this section (3.3):

- *Impact on learning:* "Formative assessment" seems to be having positive impact on learning (Fontana and Fernandes, 1994; Black and Wiliam, 1998b; Rea-Dickins, 2001; McDonald and Boud, 2003; Wiliam et al, 2004; Carless, 2005; Ross, 2005; Pinter, 2007; Storch, 2007; McGarrell and Verbeem, 2007).
- *Use in the classrooms: attitudes:* Teachers and learners seem to have quite positive attitude towards use of formative assessment in their classrooms (Hasselgren, 2000; Torrance and Pryor, 2001; McDonald and Boud, 2003; Carless, 2005; Pinter, 2007); however some of "formative assessment" procedures seem to be accepted by learners with less enthusiasm ("peer-assessment") (Morris and Tarone, 2003; Cheng and Warren, 2005)
- *"Self- and peer-assessment" compared to teacher assessment:* Research findings suggest that sometimes quality of learner assessment may be not as good quality of teacher assessment (Patri, 2002 in relation to self-assessment; Cheng and Warren, 2005); though it may not always be so (Hasselgren, 2000; Patri, 2002 in relation to peer-assessment; Chu, 2007).
- *Teacher "feedback":* Research suggests that provision of "feedback" for "summative" purposes may overlap provision of "feedback" for "formative" purposes (Black and Wiliam, 1998b; Cheng and Wang, 2007); "descriptive feedback" in the form of comments seems to be more beneficial for promoting learning than "evaluative feedback" provided by means of grades (Butler, 1988); teacher "feedback" provided by means of comments may be ineffective if learners poorly understand it (Smith and Gorard, 2005).

- *Quality of "formative assessment": way forward:* It is evidenced from the research the quality of "formative assessment" may possibly be improved by: (1) developing teacher pedagogical self-awareness (Torrance and Pryor, 2001); (2) thorough planning (Rea-Dickins and Gardner, 2000); (3) providing effective "formative feedback" which elicits understanding and guides progress (Torrance and Pryor, 2001).

Having reviewed research on "formative assessment" (3.3), I now turn to reviewing methodological considerations of this research and reveal implications for the present study.

3.4 Methodological considerations and implications

As evidenced from the review of research (3.3), there have been a number of LTA studies in which "formative assessment" was a relatively significant topic of investigation. The main design features and findings of these studies are presented in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Review of research on "formative assessment" (1988, 1994 – 2007)

No.	Study	Type of Study	Focus	Methodology/Analysis	Main Findings
1.	**Butler (1988)**	Experimental	Formative assessment/ feedback	The researcher randomly assigned fifth and sixth grade pupils to three groups, each of which received a different kind of feedback. One group received grades on their work; the second received grades and comments; the third received comments only. Quantitative and qualitative data analyses.	1. When working on tasks requiring divergent thinking, both high and low achieving learners achieved more when given comments-only than either grades or grades-and-comments; 2. The interest in further work (motivation) of high achievers was the same for all feedback conditions; 3. But low achievers expressed most interest after comments-only.
2.	**Fontana and Fernandes (1994)**	Experimental	Self-assessment	25 primary school teachers, primary school Portuguese children. 354 pupils were in an experimental group (they received training in self-assessment and employed in practice) and 313 pupils in a control group (they did not receive such training and did not employ self-assessment techniques in practice). Pupil self-assessment techniques were taught to a group of 25 primary school teachers on a 40 hours INSET course. Then teachers subsequently introduced them as routine procedures in their individual classes (experimental group). Quantitative data analysis.	1. Children in experimental group manifested significant improvements in scores on a purpose-built mathematics test when compared to a control group of children.
3.	**Tunstall and Gipps (1996)**	Observational	Feedback/ Formative assessment - typology	Six schools, key stage 1, years 1 and 2; 49 EL1 children (5 – 7 year old), 8 teachers. In each class two high attaining, two low attaining and two average pupils were selected. Interview, observation, recordings transcribed in full; observational notes. Qualitative analysis of data.	1. Feedback may be evaluative (close to summative assessment) or descriptive (close to formative assessment); 2. 'Specifying attainment and improvement' and 'Constructing achievement and the way forward' types of descriptive feedback are clearly associated with formative assessment.

4.	**Black and Wiliam (1998b)**	Review of research	Formative assessment	Over 160 journals for the past nine years; and earlier research; 580 articles and chapters.	1. Studies show that innovations which include strengthening the practice of formative assessment produce significant, and often substantial, learning gains; 2. Many of studies show that improved formative assessment helps the (so-called) low attainers more than the rest, and so reduces the spread of attainment whilst also raising it overall; 3. For primary school teachers particularly, there is a tendency to emphasise quantity and presentation of work and to neglect its quality in relation to learning; 4. The giving of marks and the grading functions are over-emphasised, while the giving of useful advice and the learning function are under-emphasised. 5. Enhancing the quality of learning through improved formative feedback takes classroom time, and is in conflict where teachers feel under the pressure to 'cover' a statutory curriculum.
5.	**Gattullo (2000)**	Observational	Formative assessment	70 pupils aged from 8 to 10 studying English as L2 in two primary schools in the Emilia-Romagna Region, Northern Italy. Four teachers. Use of pupil questionnaires, teachers' interviews and analysis of assessment materials. Meetings with teachers: initial meeting, intermediate meetings, further meetings and final meeting. Classroom observation using audio recorder (15 hours). Data transcribed and analysed qualitatively.	1. Teachers are often not able to make productive use of information they collect for formative assessment. 2. The data do not show teachers asking for clarification about what an individual pupil has said or done, or questioning why and how pupils have approached or achieved a task in the way they have, instead it shows that teachers mostly asked questions to rehearse knowledge and/or enhance motivation.

					3. The data suggests that some formative assessment actions are more common than others (i.e., questioning, correcting, judging), at the expense of those that could be considered more beneficial for learning (e.g., observing process, examining product, metacognitive questioning).
6.	**Hasselgren (2000)**	Experimental (material trial)	Self-assessment (secondary focus)	A thousand of 11-12 years old primary school children studying English as second language in 34 Norwegian schools. Trial of material for 25 minutes over a two-week period. Use of self-assessment forms, scoring forms, score sheets, profile forms, and observational forms. Ongoing research - preliminary findings only.	1. Most pupils were almost disconcertingly realistic about what they could and could not do in English; 2. Both teachers and pupils were able to approach assessment without prejudice and put it to positive use.
7.	**Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000)**	Observational	Formative assessment	Nine inner-city primary (elementary) schools. Key Stage One (5-7 year olds), learners with EAL in national curriculum classrooms. Case study. Observation driven teacher assessment of learner performance in classrooms. Four data collection phases. Use of short open-ended questionnaires and interviews. Qualitative data analysis.	1. The distinctions between formative and summative assessment are not as straightforward as sometimes portrayed; 2. Assessment data influenced the planning of teaching by the class teacher; 3. Assessment functioned to confirm the appropriacy of teaching and provided evidence of language development; 4. Assessments work best when they are well planned.
8.	**Torrance and Pryor (2001)**	Observational (action research)	Formative assessment	Two university-based researchers and a team of teacher-researchers. Action research approach. Data were gathered through the audio- and video recording of assessment interactions. Research diaries were kept. The researchers and teachers met 17 times (sessions, evaluations, workshops).	1. An initial starting point for the development of effective assessment is the development of pedagogical self-awareness; 2. A variety of questions, intended to be perceived by students as 'helping' questions, should be used to elicit understanding and guide progress;

				Qualitative data analysis.	3. Particularly useful forms of such questions are elicitations which invite students to clarify and to reflect on their own thinking. 4. Teachers were very positive about the project's overall approach.
9.	**Rea-Dickins (2001)**	Observational	Assessment formative and summative	Two language support teachers and one mainstream classroom teacher. Descriptive study – illuminates the different identities of classroom assessment in relation to examples from EAL teachers' professional practice. Data: teacher interviews, classroom observation, video and audio recordings of learners, lesson transcripts. Qualitative data analysis.	1. Formative assessment is embedded within instruction and may be viewed as contributing to learning; 2. The same information from a single assessment opportunity may be used for different purposes (summative and formative); 3. The extent of scaffolding is dependent on the purpose of the assessment. 4. Assessment activity contributed to a child's language learning in a way in which an outcomes oriented formal test could not.
10.	**Patri (2002)**	Experimental	Self- and peer-assessment	56 native Chinese students aged between 18 and 21 years, from the City University of Hong Kong, studying English as L2 (ESL). One control and one experimental group. Participants in experimental group performed the tasks of self- and peer-assessment complemented with peer feedback. Participants in control group did so without any peer feedback. The experiment was built into the teacher's lesson plan. Self-assessment questionnaires were used. Training sessions were audio-taped. The week after a training session participants from both groups made their presentations. Data obtained from week 5 was used for analysis. Statistical analysis using t-tests, Pearson correlation coefficients, nonlinear and linear regressions.	1. When assessment criteria are firmly set, peer-feedback enables students to judge the performance of their peers in a manner comparable to those of the teachers; 2. However, the students have been unable to judge themselves in a manner similar to the teacher.

11.	**McDonald and Boud (2003)**	Experimental	Self-assessment	High school English L1 students and their teachers. An experimental group comprised 256 participants who received formal training in self-assessment skills for the three terms of the academic year. A controlled group was selected from matched classes and did not receive such training (259 students). Teachers were trained as a group through interactive workshops → the researcher visited schools → students were encouraged to apply self-assessment skills in everyday decision making, informal conversations → the researcher and trained teachers coached students. The research design was a post-test only control group experimental design where self assessment training was the experimental variable and the post-test was the results of the Caribbean Examinations Council examinations. Statistical analysis using SPSS.	1. Introduction of self-assessment practices was well accepted by teachers and by students; 2. Students with self-assessment training significantly outperformed their peers who did not receive such training; and 3. Students trained in self-assessment outperformed their peers in all curriculum areas.
12.	**Rea-Dickins (2003)**	Observational	Formative assessment	Mainstream primary school classrooms at Key Stage 1, with high density of learners with EAL. Mainstream classroom teachers, language support teachers, and bilingual educational assistants. Data focuses on two dimensions: 1) teacher feedback to learners with EAL in support of their learning and 2) the nature of learner participation in assessment activities. Open-ended questionnaires, detailed questionnaires, interviews. Qualitative analysis of data.	1. The children used a significant number of strategies during the assessment activities; 3. Implementing quality formative assessment is indistinguishable in many ways from good teaching practice; 4. Not all feedback is formative. It is 'uptake' of the feedback that contributes to whether it is effective in promoting processes of teaching or learning.
13.	**Wiliam et al (2004)**	Experimental	Formative assessment	Secondary school students, 24 teachers. All teachers were supported over a six-month period in exploring and planning their approach to formative assessment, then teachers' plans were put into action. Experimental and comparison groups were formed. Empirical quantitative data was gathered. Use of statistical analysis.	1. Improving formative assessment does produce tangible benefits in terms of externally mandated assessments (such as key stage 3 tests and GCSE examinations in England); 2. Improvements equivalent to approximately one-half of a GCSE grade per student per subject are achievable;

					3. The data suggest that teachers do not, as is sometimes reported, have to choose between teaching well and getting good results.
14.	**Leung and Mohan (2004)**	Observational	Formative discourse and language assessment	Two multiethnic and multilingual Year 4 (Grade 4) mainstream elementary classrooms with a high number of students with EAL/ESL of various levels of English proficiency. Type of data collection – observation (presumably; not stated explicitly in the article) Data extracts focus on moments of interaction in two lessons when the teachers and students were engaged in reading and discussing curriculum material. Analysis of data by means of four stage cycle of classroom interaction that included assessment; and by means of three-part model for the analysis of decision-making dialogue. Qualitative analysis of interaction processes is accompanied by quantitative analysis of student discussion data. No software packages were used.	1. Classroom assessment raises issues that go beyond standardized assessment; 2. Teachers were taking a coherent and well-chosen approach that had the potential to help students develop academic discourse and increased use of language as a medium of learning across the curriculum; 3. Pattern of student interaction revealed low frequency of reason-giving and the lack of overall participation.
15.	**Cheng and Warren (2005)**	Observational/ Comparative	Peer-assessment	51 first-year undergraduate engineering EFL students attending a university in Hong Kong. Language proficiency equals to 500 score on TOEFL Test. Three teachers. Training period – 14 weeks with three semester hours in each week. Use of four-item questionnaire, student feedback forms, pre- and post-questionnaires, semi-structured interviews. Use of statistical analysis (ANOVA, paired t-tests).	1. Students reported a low level of comfort and a low degree of confidence in their ability to fairly and responsibly assess their peers' language proficiency; 2. Students and teachers were different in their interpretations of oral and written language proficiency of assessed students. 3. Both teachers and students found the peer-assessment exercise beneficial in terms of students' higher level cognitive thinking and facilitating a deep approach to language learning.
16.	**Smith and Gorard (2005)**	Experimental	Formative feedback	104 year 7 pupils with English as L1 were divided into four mixed-ability teaching groups. One of them – treatment group – was given enhanced formative feedback on their work for one year, but no marks or grades. The other three groups were give marks and grades with minimal	1. Progress in the treatment group (formative feedback only) was substantially inferior to that of the other three groups.

				comments. Use of questionnaires and unstructured group interviews. Contextualised analysis of progress in the four teaching groups was made for all subjects.	2. Feedback provided to students in treatment group was often poorly understood by the students and did little to enhance the learning process. 3. Overall, students in a treatment group felt that they would prefer to get marks and comments, but not comments alone.
17.	**Carless (2005)**	Observational (action research)	Peer-assessment	Primary school pupils aged from 10 to 11, EL1. Small-scale action research aimed to improve grammatical accuracy of the pupils' writing through peer-assessment. The teacher trained pupils in peer-assessment techniques. Use of classroom observations.	1. Pupils did not mind being assessed by their peers; 2. Peer assessment was having a positive impact on pupils' learning. They become more sensitive to grammatical errors and knew how to correct them; 3. Peer-assessment encouraged pupils to interact with each other than just with the teacher.
18.	**Ross (2005)**	Observational/ Comparative	Formative assessment	Eight cohorts of Japanese undergraduate students, aged from 18 to 20 years, learning EFL, enrolled in EAP course in a private university. Eight-year longitudinal study. Four of these cohorts (which were assessed mainly through end-of-term summative assessment tests) were contrasted with other four cohorts (which were engaged in considerably more formative assessment practices). Use of statistical analysis.	1. Formative assessment practices yield substantive skill-specific effects on language proficiency growth.
19.	**Rea-Dickins (2006)**	Observational	Formative assessment	EAL Learners at Key Stage 1 of the national curriculum programme. Two language support teachers and one mainstream classroom teacher. Classroom observations; interviews with language support teachers – twice, before and after the assessment was administrated; interview with the teacher after the lesson observations. Different assessment episodes are analysed. Quantitative data analysis.	1. The learning dimension in assessment is embedded within instruction and may be viewed as contributing to or nurturing language learning; 2. Whether for formative or summative purposes assessment may present opportunities for language learning or awareness raising; 3. There is a complex relationship between

					formative and summative assessments.
20.	**Rea-Dickins (2007a)**	Observational	Formative assessment	Primary school children with EAL at Key Stage 1 (6 – 7 years old) studying in mainstream English classrooms. Language support teacher, mainstream classroom teacher, bilingual educational assistant. Observation using audio- and video recordings. Qualitative data analysis.	1. Teachers may scaffold language development in 'in-flight' formative classrooms assessment through different types of feedback.
21.	**Pinter (2007)**	Observational	Peer-assessment	Two 10 years old children learning English in a primary school in Hungary. Both highly motivated. Never before used interactive tasks. Practicing with several sets of similar spot-the-differences tasks. Analysis focused on the observable changes from the first to the last repetition. Performance was recorded, learners were asked to comment on the changes between their first and last performances in an interview. Qualitative and quantitative data analyses	1. Children enjoyed the experience of speaking English in a spontaneous manner with each other and managed to complete the task by the last repetition more fluently; 2. Both learners assisted each other across the repetitions but in particular the more competent learner assisted the weaker one in many different ways; 3. Both learners were able to see the benefits of the task repetition and were aware of many positive changes that occurred in their performance
22.	**Chu (2007)**	Observational	Self-assessment	Fifth year students in the department of applied foreign languages in a five-year junior college. Procedure based on exploratory practice for guiding students in the investigation of their own learning. Use of students' journals, worksheets and course feedback. Qualitative data analysis.	1. Once learners are given the opportunity to set goals, understand their needs, try out different ways of learning and select suitable strategies according to their own areas of strength, they actually are capable of deciding what makes the quality of their learning better
23.	**Storch (2007)**	Observational/ Comparative	Pair-assessment	Four intact ESL tertiary university classes. Class A – pair work, class B – individual work, classes C and D – could choose between pair or individual work. In class A all pair talk was audio recorded. The data set consisted of 20 edited texts produced by pairs and 25 produced by students working individually.	1.there was no significant difference between the accuracy of tasks completed individually and those completed in pairs; but 2. pair work provided learners with opportunities to use the second language for a range of functions, and in turn for language learning

				Qualitative and quantitative data analyses.	
24.	**Cheng and Wang (2007)**	Interview study	Formative assessment	Seventy-four ESL/EFL university teachers from universities in Canada, Hong-Kong and China. Use of semi-structured interviews. Qualitative data analysis.	1. Grading: most Ts provided written feedback to the Sts, but most Ts did not involve Sts in preparing the scoring criteria (assessment done to St rather than with them – McMillan and Workman, 1998); 2. Reporting: some C Ts made an effort to make the assessment results of practical value to their Sts by providing more than just a score (total score + subskill score or feedback), whereas no teachers from HK or Ch did this.
25.	**McGarrell and Verbeem (2007)**	Observational	Formative assessment - feedback	Use of writing samples from ESL and EFL contexts. University students. Examining corrected writing samples for instances of evaluative and formative feedback. Qualitative data analysis	1. Addressing developing writers' communicative purposes through an inquiring stance (formative feedback) to early drafts motivates revision and thus creates opportunities for writing skills development; 2. Formative feedback takes the form of probing questions, focuses on content, avoids judgment, and is personolized.

Table 3.2 below provides concise overview on the focus, type, context and participants of the studies presented in Table 3.1 above.

Table 3.2: Focus, type, context and participants of the LTA studies reviewed

Study	Focus[26]	Type of study	Context[27]	Participants
Butler (1988)	FA/F	Experimental	MNC	Grade 5 and 6 students
Fontana and Fernandes (1994)	SA	Experimental	Portuguese classroom	Primary school children
Tunstall and Gipps (1996)	FA/F	Observational	MNC	5 – 7 years old
Gattullo (2000)	FA	Observational	ESL	8 – 10 years old
Hasselgren (2000)	SA	Experimental	ESL	11 – 12 years old
Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000)	FA	Observational	Immersion	5 – 7 years old
Torrance and Pryor (2001)	FA	Observational (action research)	MNC	Teachers
Rea-Dickins (2001)	FA	Observational	Immersion	Teachers
Patri (2002)	SA/PA	Experimental	ESL	18 – 21 years old
McDonald and Boud (2003)	SA	Experimental	MNC	High school students
Rea-Dickins (2003)	FA	Observational	Immersion	5 – 7 years old
Wiliam et al (2004)	FA	Experimental	MNC	Secondary school students
Leung and Mohan (2004)	FA	Observational	Immersion	Grade 4 students
Cheng and Warren (2005)	PA	Observational (comparative)	EFL	University students
Smith and Gorard (2005)	FA/F	Experimental	MNC	Year 7 students
Carless (2005)	PA	Observational (action research)	Hong Kong classrooms	10 – 11 years old
Ross (2005)	FA	Observational (comparative)	EFL	18 – 20 years old
Rea-Dickins (2006)	FA	Observational	Immersion	5 – 7 years old
Pinter (2007)	PA	Observational	ESL	10 years old
Po-yung (2007)	SA	Observational	ESL	Adults
Storch (2007)	PA	Observational (comparative)	ESL	Adults
Cheng and Wang (2007)	FA	Interview study	ESL/EFL	Teachers
McGarrell and Verbeen (2007)	FA/F	Observational	ESL/EFL	University students

It can be observed from the above table that:

- almost all of the recent studies on "formative assessment" were carried out either in the context of second language (8), foreign language (4) or mainstream classrooms (8), with only few conducted in immersion settings (5);
- more of these studies were carried out with adult participants (14) and less with younger learners (9);

[26] FA – Formative assessment; F – Feedback; SA – Self-assessment; PA – Peer-assessment
[27] EFL – English as a foreign language; ESL – English as a second language; MNC – Mainstream national curriculum classrooms

- more observational (17) than experimental (7) studies on "formative assessment" were conducted over the last 14 years.

Similar to the implications of the present research in relation to research on "focus on form", are the implications in relation to research on "formative assessment". The present study investigates:

- "formative assessment" in immersion classrooms, the context not much yet investigated[28]; and
- learners in the 8-10 year range, also the area of limited research[29].

By investigating these two areas the present study adds knowledge to a limited research on "formative assessment".

3.5 Summary

In this chapter I examined literature and research on LTA and defined the construct of "formative assessment" (3.2), and the concepts of "feedback" (3.2.1), "self- and peer-assessment" (3.2.2) in relation to "formative assessment". In 3.3 I reviewed and discussed previous research on "formative assessment" and pointed out the gaps in current knowledge that I address in my study (3.4).

In the next chapter, I present the design of the present research study.

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[28] To date only few researchers investigated immersion contexts in relation to "formative assessment". These are: Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000) Rea-Dickins (2001, 2003, and 2006); Leung and Mohan (2004).

[29] Even though there is a study on "formative assessment" (Gattullo, 2000) that took learners as young as 8-10 years old as core participants, it was carried out in the context of ESL classroom, but not immersion. Fontana and Fernandes' (1994) study also focused on primary school children however their age is not specified. Similar to Gattullo (2000), Fontana and Fernandes' (1994) study was carried out not in the immersion setting but in the context of Portuguese mainstream classroom. Other studies researched either younger (Tunstall and Gipps, 1996; Rea-Dickins and Gardner, 2000; Rea-dickins, 2001, 2003, 2006) or elder participants (Hasselgren, 2000; Carless, 2005).

PART III THE RESEARCH STUDY

CHAPTER FOUR DESIGN OF MAIN STUDY

4.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

In this chapter, I present the design of the main study. I begin by outlining the research approach in 4.2, and introducing the research questions and hypotheses in 4.3. I then present the research context (4.4), participants (4.5) and details of the pilot study (4.6). In the following section the research procedures are discussed (4.7). The language assessment framework that is used as the basis for the data analysis is presented in 4.8. The methodological categories adopted for the study are explained in 4.9. Issues of research validity and reliability, as well as ethical issues, are discussed in 4.10 and 4.11 respectively. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the main points addressed (4.12).

4.2 Research approach

This study is positioned within the framework of a positivist research paradigm as it:

- "applies the methods of the natural sciences (namely, "use of large data sets, quantitative measurement, and statistical methods of analysis" (Benton and Craib, 2001: 23)) to the social sciences" Delanty (1997: 11); and
- adopts main principles (Table 4.1) and features of the positivist research paradigm, as summarised in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Main principles of positivist research paradigm

Principle	Explanation
1) Principle of "unity of the scientific method" (Delanty, 1997: 12)	This principle rests on ideas of scientism and naturalism and suggests that "there is no essential difference between the methods of natural science and social science" (Delanty, 1997: 12), and therefore "it [becomes] possible to transfer the assumptions and methods of natural sciences to the study of social objects" (Smith, 1998: 76).
2) Principle of observation and "scientific laws" (Benton and Craib, 2001: 17)	This principle is derived from one of the empiricist principles. According to it, positivists see observation as a foundation of science and development of scientific laws as a purpose of science. They, thus, say that in order to "develop a scientific law [one should] start from the observation of a particular set of objects and look for regularities" (Smith, 1998, 76). Then these regularities should be transformed into general laws from which hypotheses will be made. These hypotheses will further on be used to predict what can happen. In general "positivism seeks to uncover causal laws [which] have a power of explanation" (Delanty, 1997: 12).
3) Principle of differentiation	For positivists "only facts can be regarded as scientific" because they "can be empirically verified, that is observed, measured and explained" (Smith,

between "facts" and "values"	1998: 76). Values, on the other hand, involve subjective assessments, they cannot be observed or measured, and thus cannot be regarded as scientific. Scientific knowledge (that is facts which have been verified) is "universally true" (Delanty, 1997: 12).
4) Principle of objectivity/ neutrality	According to positivists "science is the study of reality" (Delanty, 1997: 12), but this reality itself exists outside science. Thus, it becomes possible for positivists to study or observe reality from a position of neutrality.
5) Principle of reductionism or atomism	Positivists believe that "everything can be reduced to atomic units" (Delanty, 1997: 12); that "the objects of scientific study [...] cannot be broken down into any smaller parts" (Smith, 1998: 76). Thus, for example, in social sciences "individual" will be taken as the most discrete unit and "society" will be seen as nothing more than a collection of individuals.
6) Principle of observed experience	This principle takes its stand from ideas of phenominalism and nominalism. Positivists believe that "only knowledge gained through observed experience can be taken seriously" (Smith, 1998: 76). Any concepts or notions which lie beyond peoples' physical senses should not be taken into consideration. Similarly, any concepts which "cannot be experienced directly through one's senses become meaningless" because "concepts have no use other than names" (ibid).

Two limitations, as perceived by Popper (1976), arise from the points in the table. Firstly, Popper suggests that knowledge starts from a problem (which is shaped on the basis of available theoretical knowledge) but not from observation. He states: "knowledge does not start from perception or observations or the collection of data or facts, but it starts, rather, from *problems"* (ibid: 88). However, in educational research, researchers often start their enquiries by looking at "what is happening" in their research contexts and then at "why this is happening", that is, they start from an observation but not from a problem. In the present study, I began with observing the classrooms in order to reveal "what was happening" in them, then I analysed the data in order to answer the questions "why what I observed was happening" and "what impact the observed phenomena might have had on language learning and why".

Secondly, Popper (ibid) suggests that scientists use science in order to falsify the results of previous theories but not view it as an attempt to establish the "truth of laws". I believe that Popper's principle of falsification may not always work because before falsifying a theory there should be a theory to falsify. If the researcher looks at problem "x" from a different angle than has been done previously, then, I would argue, there is nothing to falsify, but rather something to elaborate and predict.

The present study has the following features of positivism. Firstly, it adopts quantitative method of investigation. Bassey (1996: 43) states that in positivist studies "the data is numerical and suitable for statistical analysis... Methodology is

quantitative". In the present study the data collected are analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively, however, it is quantitative analysis that provides the data for answering four out of five research questions. The data are analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) Version 12.0.1, and employs counting of frequencies and analysing relationships between the variables as the main units of analysis (5.3).

Secondly, the present study makes generalisations. Bassey (1996: 43) states that in positivist studies "understanding is expressed in the form of generalization". In this study I generalize results obtained from data analysis to the whole teaching situation within similar contexts (Chapter 6).

Thirdly, the present study targets objectivity. Usher (1996: 12) claims that "the world is objective... Through systematic observation and correct scientific methods it is possible to [...] explain, predict and control events and phenomena". The author also states that "different observers exposed to the same data should be able to come to the same conclusions". The present study primarily adopts quantitative methods of data analysis therefore it becomes almost impossible to interpret the data "subjectively". Qualitative analysis of the data was performed by two independent researchers; its outcomes were compared and agreed (5.4).

Fourthly, the present study aims to explain cause-effect relationships between variables. Clough and Nutbrown (2002: 19) state that "quantitative studies emphasise the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables". Similarly Bassey (1996: 43) claims that "understanding enables one to explain how particular events occur [cause] and to predict what will be the outcome [effect] of future events". In the present study I identify, firstly, which variables may determine occurrence of particular language assessment strategies, and, secondly, which variables may determine the effectiveness of these language assessment strategies (5.3.2 and 5.3.4).

Fifthly, the study adopts the principle of determinacy, that is, that "replicable findings are, in fact, "true" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994: 110). The findings of the

present research discussed in 6.4 and 6.5 show considerable similarities with the research findings discussed in 2.5 and 3.3.

Finally, the present study targets impersonality, which implies that "the investigator and the investigated "object" are [...] independent entities and the investigator [is] capable of studying the object without influencing it or being influenced by it" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994: 110). In the present study I was present in the classrooms as a non-participant observer and took steps to influence data collected from observations to the least possible extent.

Having analysed the research approach of this study, I next turn to presenting my research questions and hypotheses.

4.3 Research questions and hypotheses

This research aims to investigate teacher and learner language assessment strategies, as presented in the language assessment framework (4.8), and the possible effects that these strategies may have on learners' linguistic development. The research also aims to explore teacher and learner views on "teacher feedback", "learner self- and peer-assessment". The research questions and hypotheses are shaped by the review of official policy documentation (1.2), review of research on "focus on form" (2.5) and "formative assessment" (3.3), and the findings presented in my MEd dissertation (Afitska, 2004). The specific research questions are as follows:

Research Question 1: *Which language assessment strategies, if any, do teachers and learners use in immersion classrooms to support and promote learners' linguistic development?*

This research question aims to identify the range of language assessment strategies, if any, that the teachers and learners use in mainstream classes to support and promote language development of young learners with EAL.

Research Question 2: *What does the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depend on?*

This research question focuses on an investigation of the variables which may influence the type and frequency of use of language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms. It consists of three sub-questions.

Research Question 2.1: *Is the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners contingent upon the subject area of the lessons?*

This question aims to examine (1) whether there is a significant relationship between the subject area of the lesson (literacy, numeracy or science) and the type of language assessment used by the teachers and the learners; and (2) whether there is a significant relationship between the subject area of the lesson and the frequency of use of language assessment strategies by the teachers and the learners.

Research Question 2.2: *Is the type and frequency of use of language assessment strategies by the teachers and learners contingent on the phase (group work or plenary) in the lesson?*

This question aims to investigate (1) whether there is a significant relationship between the phase of the lesson (plenary session or group work) and the type of language assessment used by the teachers and the learners; and (2) whether there is a significant relationship between the phase of the lesson and the frequency of use of language assessment by the teachers and the learners.

Research Question 2.3: *Is the type and frequency of use of language assessment strategies by teachers and learners contingent on whether CT or LT leads the lessons?*

This question aims to investigate (1) whether there is a significant relationship between the teacher's role in the classroom and the type of language assessment used by the teacher and the learners; and (2) whether there is a significant relationship between the teacher's role in the classroom (LT or CT) and the frequency of use of language assessment strategies by the teachers and the learners.

Research Question 3: *What is the impact of language assessment on learners' linguistic development?*

This research question aims to examine the impact of language assessment strategies on learners' linguistic development.

Research Question 4: *What does the effectiveness (measured by successful uptake) of language assessment depend on?*

Drawing on data from RQ1, this research question aims to identify the variables which may influence the degree of effectiveness of language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms. This question consists of three sub-questions.

Research Question 4.1: *Is and to what extent the effectiveness of language assessment contingent upon the subject area of the lessons?*

This question aims to investigate whether there is a significant relationship between a subject area of the lesson (literacy, numeracy or science) and the effectiveness of language assessment strategies.

Research Question 4.2: *Is and to what extent the effectiveness of language assessment contingent upon the phase of the lesson?*

This question aims to examine whether there is a significant relationship between the phase of the lesson (plenary session or group work) and the effectiveness of language assessment strategies.

Research Question 4.3: *Is and to what extent the effectiveness of language assessment contingent upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson?*

This question aims to investigate whether there is a significant relationship between the teacher's role in the classroom (CT or LT) and the effectiveness of language assessment strategies.

Research Question 5: *What are the teachers' and the learners' views on use of various language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms?*

This research question aims to reveal the teachers' and learners' views on use of language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms. This question has two separate foci: the teachers' views and the learners' views.

Research Question 5.1: *What are the teachers' views on (a) teacher feedback, (b) learner peer-assessment, and (c) learner self-assessment in immersion classrooms?*

This question examines the teachers' views on (a) teacher feedback, (b) learner peer-assessment, and (c) learner self-assessment in the context of immersion classrooms.

Research Question 5.2: *What are the learners' views on (a) teacher feedback, (b) learner peer-assessment, and (c) learner self-assessment in immersion classrooms?*

This question examines the learners' views on (a) teacher feedback, (b) learner peer-assessment, and (c) learner self-assessment in the context of immersion classrooms.

Table 4.2 below presents the research questions and summarises the main issues addressed in them.

Table 4.2: Summary of key issues addressed in the research questions

Research questions	Key Issues to be addressed
RQ1: *Which language assessment strategies, if any, do teachers and learners use in immersion classrooms to support and promote learners' linguistic development?*	*Range* of language assessment strategies
RQ2: *What does the type and frequency of use of language assessment strategies by the teachers and learners depend on?*	*Variables* which may influence *frequency* and *type* of language assessment strategies
RQ3: *What is the impact of language assessment strategies on learners' linguistic development?*	*Impact* of language assessment strategies on language development
RQ4: *What does the effectiveness and the extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies depend on?*	*Variables* which may influence *effectiveness* and the *extent* of effectiveness of language assessment strategies
RQ5: *What are the teachers' and the learners' views on use of language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms?*	Teachers' and learners' *views* on use of the language assessments strategies

Table 4.2 reveals that all the research questions focus on the investigation of different language assessment issues. RQ1 seeks to uncover the range of language assessment strategies used in immersion classrooms. RQ2 and RQ4 focus on the exploration of variables that may affect the frequency, variety and effectiveness of language assessment strategies. RQ3 aims to examine the impact that language assessment strategies may have on learners' linguistic development. RQ5 aims to explore the teachers' and learners' views on use of various language assessments strategies.

The research questions presented above give rise to the following corresponding research hypotheses.

Research Hypothesis 2.1:

(I): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject area of the lesson.

(ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject matter of the lesson.

Research Hypothesis 2.2:

(i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the phase of the lesson.

(ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the lesson phase.

Research Hypothesis 2.3:

(i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson, or activity.

(ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson, or activity.

Research Hypothesis 4.1:

(i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject area of the lesson.

(ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject lesson.

Research Hypothesis 4.2:

(i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the phase of the lesson.

(ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the lesson phase.

Research Hypothesis 4.3:

(i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson.

(ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson.

In the following section I present the context of this research study.

4.4 Context of the study

This research investigated two classrooms at Key Stage 2 of the English National Curriculum, years 4 and 5 in a mainstream primary school in an inner city area. As seen in Table 4.3 below both classes comprised a high proportion of pupils learning English as an additional language.

Table 4.3: The level of density of pupils with EAL in the examined classrooms

Key Stage /Class	Total number of pupils in the class	Number of pupils with EAL	Level of density of pupils with EAL
KS2/Year 4	33	21	64%
KS2/Year 5	26	15	58%

Access to the school was negotiated through an Ethnic Minority Advisory Service, part of an Inner City Council's Education and Libraries Directorate, which works in partnership with schools to facilitate access to education for children learning with EAL through provision of language support.

According to its proposed design, the study aimed to examine one year 5 and one year 6 class during core subject lessons, each taught by different CT and LT. However, due to specific local circumstances (Table 4.4) it became problematic to proceed with the proposed design. Therefore it was reshaped with the achieved study design, as follows: examination of one year 5 and one year 4 class each taught by a different CT but by the same LT (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Proposed and achieved design of the study

Proposed design	Circumstances	Achieved design
CT1 ↑ Year 6 ↓ LT	Preparation for Standard Assessment Tasks (SATs)	CT1 ↑ Year 4 ↓ LT
CT2 ↑ Year 5 ↓ LT1	Mostly worked in KS1; supported withdrawal group; focused on teaching literacy	CT2 ↑ Year 5 ↓ LT

Since the present study involved interviews with learners, investigation of KS2[30] was preferred to KS1[31] as it allowed a better chance of gathering learner perspectives on specific classroom procedures. Older learners (1) may be more able to clearly express themselves, both verbally and in English; (2) they may have better knowledge and understanding of classroom practices.

[30] KS2 – Key Stage Two relates to the Years (or classes) from Year 3 to Year 6; approximate age of children 7-11.
[31] KS1 – Key Stage One relates to the Years from 1 to 2; approximate age of children 5-7.

In this section I presented the context of this research. In the following section I introduce its participants.

4.5 Participants

In this section, I present the profiles of the present research participants. I firstly present the teachers' profiles (4.5.1), followed by those of the target learners (4.5.2).

4.5.1 Teachers' profiles

Three teachers: two class teachers and one language teacher (1.3) participated in this research. The teachers were selected on the following basis:

- they taught in either of the targeted classes;
- they were either CT or LT;
- they were not newly qualified teachers.

The selected teachers' profiles are summarised in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Target teachers' profiles

Teacher	Class taught	Teaching experience
CT1	Year 5	4 years full-time
CT2	Year 4	8 years full-time
LT	Year 5 & Year 4	3 years full-time & 15 years part-time

The table shows that LT, who taught both Year 4 and 5 classes, overall had the most teaching experience (10 years), whereas CT1, who taught Year 5 class, had the least teaching experience (4 years).

4.5.2 Target learners' profiles

Two learners in each class were targeted in this research, as advised by the language teacher. They were selected on the following basis:

- they learned English as an additional language;
- they were available during the whole period of data collection;
- they had a sufficient level of English language knowledge to be interviewed;

- they had different levels of English language proficiency;
- they were of different gender (2 males and 2 females);
- they studied in different contexts (two in year 4 and two in year 5);
- they were not on the special educational needs (SEN) record;
- they were not overtly shy, that is they would be willing, in the LT's view, to speak to the researcher.

The target learners' profiles are summarised in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Target learners' profiles

Pupil	Gender	Class	EAL learner	Available during research	English language proficiency[32]	SEN
P1	Male	Year 5	✓	✓	D	×
P2	Male	Year 5	✓	✓	C–	×
P3	Female	Year 4	✓	✓	C	×
P4	Female	Year 4	✓	✓	D+	×

The grading system presented in the Table 4.6 was used by the Local Authority in which this study was conducted. It is as follows. Grade 'A' characterises English language proficiency of a newly arrived child with little or no English. Grade 'E' at the other end of the spectrum represent an EAL child whose English is at the same level as that of a monolingual child. The school uses '+' and '–' to show that the learners are just above or just below a particular level. As evidenced from the table, targeted learners have not reached Grade E in their English language proficiency by the time of the study, therefore they were considered as pupils who needed specific help with the linguistic aspects of the programme in order to access the national curriculum fully.

In the next section, I present the pilot study and its procedures.

[32] Overall linguistic ability assessment according to the Language Development Record (autumn records, 2006)

4.6 Pilot study

In 2006, a pilot study was conducted through classroom observation and the testing of the coding categories. The purposes of the pilot were:

- to practice data collection by means of classroom observation;
- to test the recording equipment;
- to give the research participants an opportunity to familiarise themselves with the recording equipment;
- to allow them time to get used to the researcher's presence in the classroom;
- to check validity of the research coding categories.

The rationale for collecting the data by means of classroom observation and interviews and the rationale for its video and audio recording are presented in 4.7.

Piloting data collection through classroom observation lasted for one week. Over this period four lessons in the year 5 class and four lessons in the year 4 class were observed and video recorded. Table 4.7 below provides the details on the data collection process.

Table 4.7: Piloting data collection through classroom observation

Class	Teacher in focus	Lesson	Video recorded	Audio recorded
Year 5	CT1	**Literacy**	✓	✓/×[33]
		Literacy	✓	×
		Science	✓	×
	LT	Numeracy	✓	×
Year 4	CT2	Literacy	✓	×
		Numeracy	✓	×
	LT	**Numeracy**	✓	×
		Numeracy	✓	×
		Science	✓/×[34]	×

Piloting data collection across all research contexts (Table 4.7 above) allowed the generation of a representative small-scale pilot database. Three lessons (highlighted in bold font) from this database were used as part of the main database (4.7.1). Part of the data collected through classroom observations was subsequently coded (4.9). Validity of the research coding categories was checked by:

[33] Audio recording equipment employed for pilot study had defects; it was impossible to collect high quality data by this means.
[34] The data collected from this lesson were lost during the process of transferral to DVD.

- the extent to which the data, coded as a particular type of data, actually represented these data;
- the degree of difficulty of categorising the data in accordance with the categories used;
- the extent of data that did not fall under any category but nevertheless were found relevant to the research focus.

The analysis revealed that generally the coding categories were valid; however three of the categories, initially coded as "provision of new linguistic input" "provision of recalling linguistic input" and "provision of supportive linguistic input", were collapsed into one category 'teacher supportive input" as no sufficient and reliable basis for their differentiation was found in the pilot study data analysis.

The second phase of data collection – interviews – was not piloted as piloting interviews, in the context of the present study, could have invalidated the data obtained from real interviews. It was felt that the learners might have shared their experiences and information about the content of interviews with the targeted learners.

In the following section I present the data collection procedures used in this study.

4.7 Data collection procedures

The data for the present study were collected in two phases. The first phase was implemented through classroom observations. The second phase was implemented through semi-structured interviews.

Data collection: phase one

Since the present study aimed to investigate specific patterns of classroom dynamics and interaction related to use language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms, it was important to capture them as fully and accurately as possible. To achieve this goal using systematic coding schedules as method of data collection was not considered appropriate as they are limited to gathering data in accordance to pre-selected categories (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). The decision, therefore,

was made in favour of conducting video- and audio- recordings of whole lessons so that (1) no relevant and significant data were left out; (2) analysis of the classroom discourse and its interpretation from different perspectives were possible.

However, data collecting by means of audio- and video- recordings has its limitations. Some of them are:

- recording can be intrusive (McDonough and McDonough, 1997);
- it may distract attention (ibid);
- it may invite strange behaviour (ibid);
- it can distort - microphones are much more limited devices than the human ear (ibid);
- it may also lead to redundancy of data, due to subjects moving out of range, or speech being inaudible (Swann 1994; Foster 1996; Blaxter *et al.* 2001).

Intrusion of the recording equipment and the potential impact of an observer are also known as an "observer's paradox" (Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979) (quoted in Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 115). To minimise the intrusion and effects of the "observer's paradox" the following actions were taken. The recording equipment was introduced to the classrooms one week prior to the main data collection phase. Since it was important to capture various classroom settings the location of the camera (as well as the ways in which it was used: set on tripod or being held) changed as the week progressed so that the learners and the teachers had an opportunity to get used to it, and to the presence of the researcher in the classroom. Collecting the data that captured various classroom procedures had additional value when the data were analysed, and allowed reducing the effect of the "observer's paradox".

Data collection: phase two

The second phase of data collection was implemented through semi-structured interviews with the teachers and the learners. This method of data collection was preferred to either – structured and unstructured interviews – as it allowed:

- "greater flexibility within a structured overall framework (for example in changing the order of questions);
- more extensive follow-up of responses;

- the interviewer to remain in control of the direction of the interview, but with more leeway" (McDonough and McDonough, 1997: 184).

Table 4.8 below presents the methods of data collection used in this study in relation to the research questions.

Table 4.8: Methods of data collection in relation to the research questions

Research question	Method of data collection
RQ1: *Which language assessment strategies, if any, do teachers and learners use in immersion classrooms to support and promote learners' linguistic development?*	Classroom observation
RQ2: *What does the type and frequency of use of language assessment strategies by the teachers and learners depend on?*	Classroom observation
RQ3: *What is the impact of language assessment strategies on learners' linguistic development?*	Classroom observation
RQ4: *What does the effectiveness and the extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies depend on?*	Classroom observation
RQ5: *What are the teachers' and the learners' views on use of language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms?*	Semi-structured interviews

As seen from Table 4.8, the data for RQ1 to 4 were collected by means of classroom observation, and the data for RQ5 were collected by means of semi-structured interviews. The research database, therefore, comprised two sets of data: the classroom observation data; and the interview data. The classroom observation data consisted of audio and video recordings of 6 lessons taught by CT1, 6 lessons taught by CT2, and 12 lessons (or their parts) taught by the LT. The interview data consisted of 4 interviews with the learners and 3 interviews with the teachers. The interview data were also collected by means of audio and video recordings. Table 4.9 below summarises the data capture of this study.

Table 4.9: Data collection procedures used in the main study

Type of data	Method of collection	Year group	Participants	Data sets	Procedure
Classroom data	Classroom observation	Year 5	CT1 & pupils	6 lessons	Audio[35] and video recording
		Year 4	CT2 & pupils	6 lessons	
		Year 4 & Year 5	LT & pupils	12 lessons	
Interview data	Semi-structured interviews	Year 5	P1	1 interview	
		Year 5	P2	1 interview	
		Year 4	P3	1 interview	
		Year 4	P4	1 interview	
		Year 5	CT1	1 interview	
		Year 4	CT2	1 interview	
		Year 4 & Year 5	LT	1 interview	

The reasons for using both video- and audio- recording procedures are partially explained above. Other reasons include:

- allowing careful and repeated analysis (Johnson, 1992; Swann, 1994; Foster, 1996, McDonough and McDonough, 1997);
- freeing the researcher from the constraints of real time (McDonough and McDonough, 1997); (3) identifying the participants (Johnson, 1992);
- increasing the reliability of the data transcripts;
- observing non-verbal aspects of communication (Johnson, 1992).

The last account was of particular importance for the present study as illustrated in the example below.

(Class 2 – Literacy – Oct. 10)

P18[36] GOOD, I got GOOD
BEA[37] Has it got /oo/ sound, though?
Listen to the word GOOD
P18 **GOOD [Pupil shakes his head]**
BEA No, so we can't have it…

The example reveals an instance when a "successful" language assessment episode could have been coded as "other" (4.9.2) had only audio-recorded data been available. Using video-recorded data in this instance allowed the analysis of non-verbal aspects of communication revealing the actual outcome of this assessment – it

[35] Some lessons were not audio recorded (4.7.1)
[36] P- Pupil
[37] BEA – Bilingual educational assistant

was successful (since the pupil provided the teacher with a correct answer by shaking his head).

4.7.1 Observation

The classroom observation collected for the main study comprised 24 lessons. Table 4.10 below provides a breakdown of the data collected.

Table 4.10: Main data collection (phase 1): classroom observation

Class	Teacher in focus	Lesson[38]	Video recorded	Audio recorded
Year 5	LT	Science	✓	✓
		Science	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓
	CT1	Science	✓	✓
		Science	✓	✗
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓/✗
		Numeracy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓
Year 4	LT	Science	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✗
	CT2	***Science***	✓	✗
		Science	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Literacy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓
		Numeracy	✓	✓

As evidenced from Table 4.10, not all lessons comprising the main database were collected during the main phase of data collection. The reason for this lies in the fact that due to the teachers' personal and professional circumstances it was not always possible to observe the lessons as planned during the researcher's stay in the target school.

[38] Four lessons from this database were not audio recorded as three of them were part of the pilot database (highlighted in bold font) (4.6), and one was observed outside the classroom on the school play area (highlighted in bold and italics font).

4.7.2 Interviews

Following the classroom observation, interviews were conducted with the teachers and the EAL learners. The decision to conduct interviews following classroom observation was determined by the same concern as presented in 4.6; namely, it was anticipated that conducting interviews prior to observation may have influenced the outcomes of the classroom observation.

Table 4.9 presented in 4.7 shows that each research participant was interviewed once. The purposes of interviews were as follows: to obtain data to inform on RQ5 (what are the teachers' and the learners' views on use of various language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms); and to triangulate the data collected through classroom observation.

Interviews with the teachers lasted for 45 minutes and were conducted at a time convenient to the teachers. Interviews with the learners lasted for 15 minutes and were conducted during the school assembly time. The reasons for doing so were as follows:

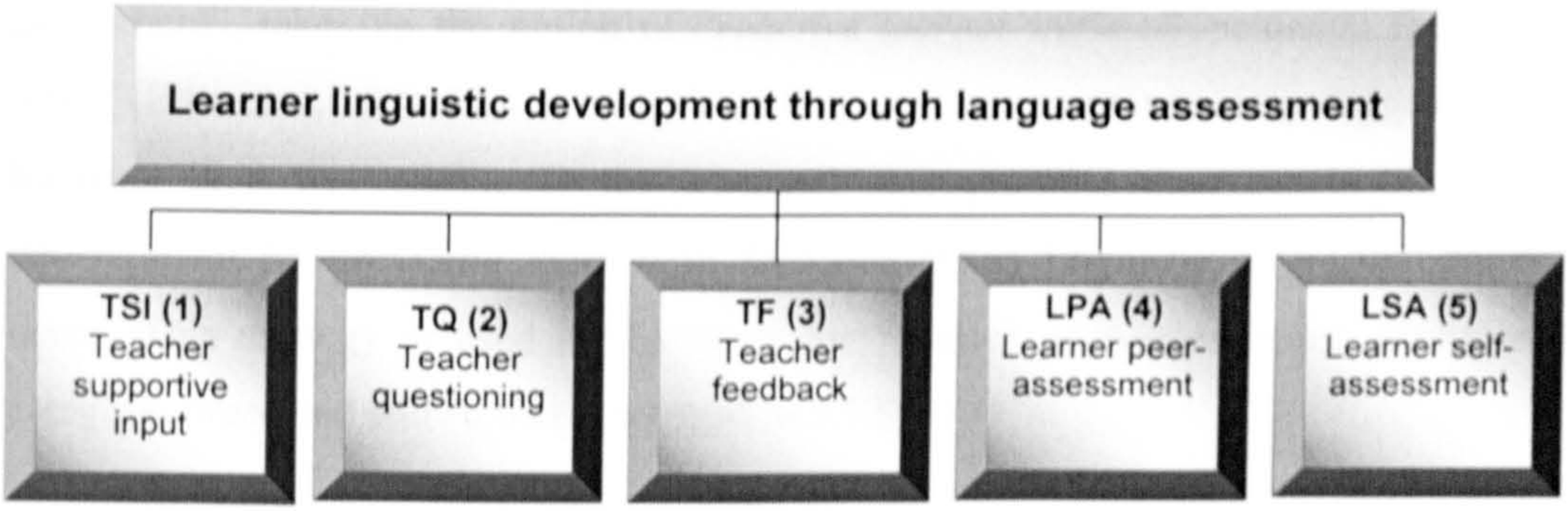
- interviewing children during the assembly did not interrupt their lessons;
- it did not lessen their play time;
- it allowed collecting the data in the first part of the school day when the children were not too tired.

In this section, I presented the data collection procedures used in the present study. In the next section, I introduce the language assessment framework that was developed to analyse the classroom observation data.

4.8 Development of language assessment framework

Review of the literature on "focus on form" (2.5.1) and the research questions (4.3) have influenced the design of the language assessment framework which underpins this research. Figure 4.1 below presents the structure of the framework.

Figure 4.1: Structure of the language assessment framework



As observed in Figure 4.1 the framework consists of five components, or strategies, which represent five ways in which language assessment may be implemented in the context of immersion classrooms. The first component, "teacher supportive input", takes up the notions of "*pre-emptive* and *reactive teacher* initiated incidental focus on form" (Ellis et al, 2001a) as its theoretical basis (2.2.1). This language assessment strategy suggests that teachers may promote learners' linguistic development by addressing linguistic issues even though learners have not asked for linguistic assistance; and by responding explicitly to learners' linguistic errors and queries. This strategy is used as basis for "teacher supportive input" analytical category, presented and further discussed in 4.9.1.

The second component of the language assessment framework, "teacher questioning", takes up the notion of "*pre-emptive teacher* initiated incidental focus on form" (Ellis et al, 2001a) only as its theoretical basis. This language assessment strategy suggests that teachers may promote learners' linguistic development by questioning their linguistic knowledge during the lessons. This strategy is used as basis for "teacher questioning" analytical category, presented and further discussed in 5.9.3.

The third component of the language assessment framework, "teacher feedback", takes up the notion of "*reactive teacher* initiated incidental focus on form" (Ellis et al, 2001a) as its bases. This language assessment strategy suggests that teachers may promote learners' linguistic development by providing them with feedback once a linguistic error or query has occurred. This strategy is used as basis for "teacher feedback" analytical category, presented and further discussed in 5.9.4.

The fourth component of the language assessment framework "learner peer-assessment", takes up the notion of "*reactive learner* initiated incidental focus on form" (Ellis et al, 2001a) as its basis. This language assessment strategy suggests that learners, in a way similar to the teachers, may promote their peer's linguistic development by providing them with feedback when linguistic errors or queries occur. This strategy is used as the basis for "learner peer-assessment" analytical category, presented and further discussed in 5.9.5.

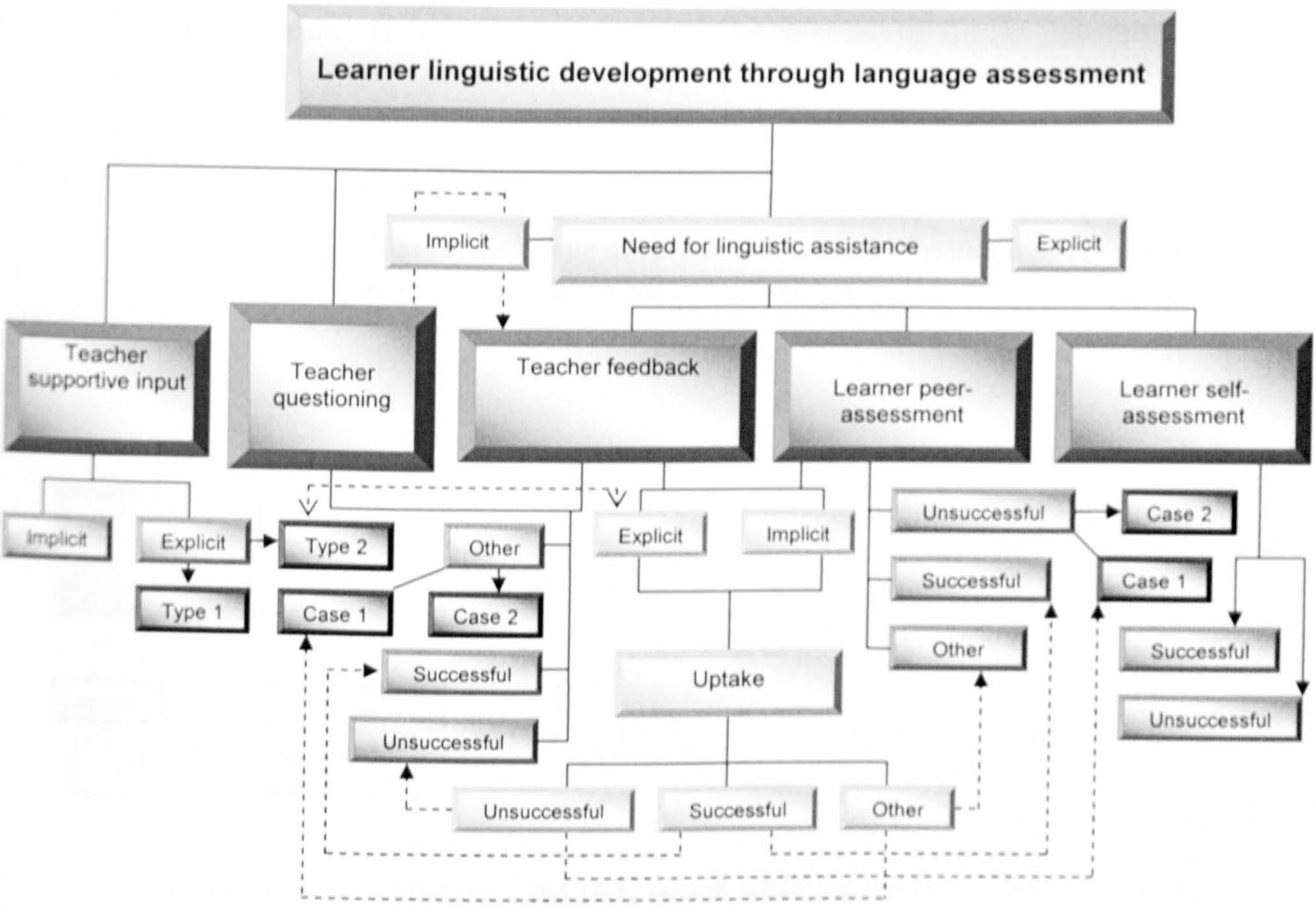
Finally, the fifth component of the language assessment framework, "learner self-assessment", similarly to "learner peer-assessment", takes the notion "*reactive learner* initiated incidental focus on form" (Ellis et al, 2001a) as its basis. This language assessment strategy suggests that learners may contribute to the development of their linguistic proficiency through self-assessment and attempting to correct their linguistic errors as well as filling in the gaps in their linguistic knowledge by themselves in the first instance. This strategy is used as the basis for "learner self-assessment" analytical category, presented and further discussed in 5.9.6.

The language assessment framework presented above covers only those language assessment strategies that can be used in the classroom. Investigation of other language assessment strategies that can be used outside the classroom (such as "language sampling" during play time (Gardner and Rea-Dickins, 2002)) goes beyond the purposes of the present research and therefore not considered here.

4.9 Methodology: presenting analytical categories

Five main analytical categories for the present study were developed on the basis of the five components of the language assessment framework (4.8). These categories allowed the analysis of data for the types of teacher and learner language assessment strategies used in the classrooms. Additional analytical categories, either developed by myself or adapted from other researchers (4.9.2), were used to analyse the data for effectiveness of the language assessment strategies. Figure 4.2 below presents overall methodological structure of the study.

Figure 4.2: Methodological structure of the study



In the following sections, 4.9.1 to 4.9.6, I present each language assessment category and illustrate it with examples taken from my dataset.

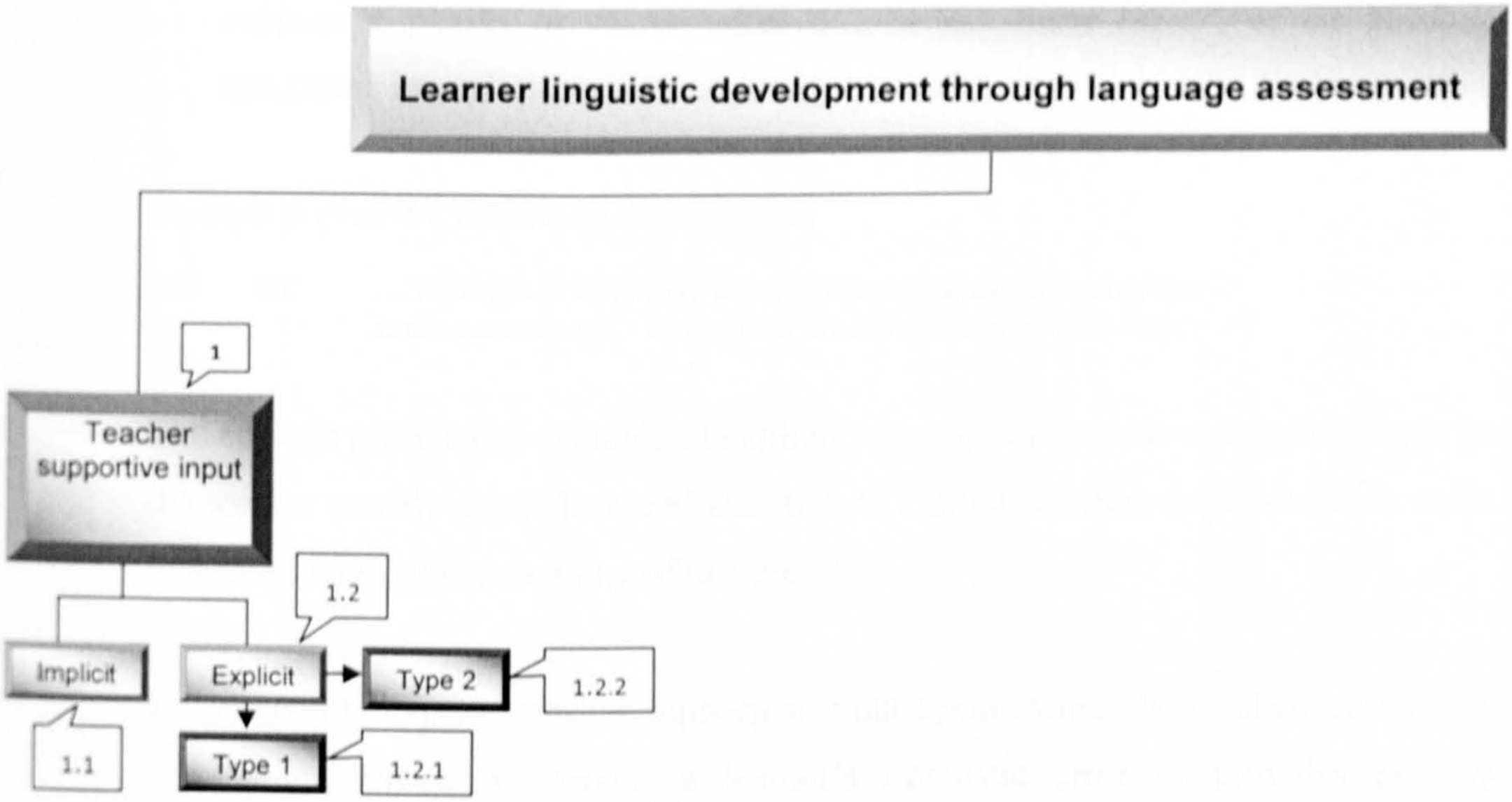
4.9.1 Teacher supportive input

It will be recalled from 4.8 that "teacher supportive input" analytical category is based on the first component of the language assessment framework. Within this category, teachers may promote the development of learners' linguistic knowledge by:

- focusing the learners' attention on form (that is, on various linguistic aspects, 2.2) when the teachers think that it is appropriate to do so; and
- explicitly providing feedback to the learners' linguistic queries or explicitly correcting their linguistic errors (2.3).

"Teacher supportive input", categorised as **[1]** in Figure 4.3 below, may be implicit **[1.1]** or explicit **[1.2]**.

Figure 4.3: Teacher supportive input



Implicit teacher supportive input **[1.1]** occurs when the teacher covertly, that is, by means of absolute or contextual synonyms, draws a learner's attention to linguistic features chosen by him or herself. No supportive phrases to make the targeted linguistic information more salient are used.

Example 1: (Year 4-LT-Numeracy-06 June 2006)

1	LT	Multiples usually go **in twos** don't they they usually go **in** the **pairs** so we got one and thirty three we got eleven and… what goes with it

The example demonstrates that the teacher by means of two contextual synonyms (*twos & pairs*) provides learners with extended opportunities to comprehend the information that she presents to widen their vocabulary. This teacher supportive input is covert as the teacher does not use any supporting phrases to make the synonyms more salient.

Explicit teacher supportive input **[1.2]** can be of two types:

- Firstly, it occurs when the teacher overtly draws learners' attention to linguistic features in order to remind learners about these features or to introduce them. This is always done on the teacher's initiative and is not a reaction of the teacher to the learner's linguistic error or query **[1.2.1]**. The teacher might use such supportive phases as: 'it is called....'; 'it is.../these are...', or the absolute synonyms in explicit way: 'I might say X, I might say Y'.

Example 2: (Year 4-CT-Numeracy-13 June 2006)

169.	CT	**... remember what that word equivalent mean it means the same amount as...** ok put your boards up ok good girl Chan...

The episode presents an example of explicit provision of formative linguistic input as the teacher overtly draws learners' attention to a linguistic item (*equivalent*) in order to remind them of the meaning of this concept.

- Secondly, explicit teacher supportive input occurs when the teacher, or another learner, explicitly corrects a learner's linguistic error or provides explicit feedback on the learner's linguistic query **[1.2.2]**.

Example 3: (Year 4-LT-Literacy-13 June 2006)

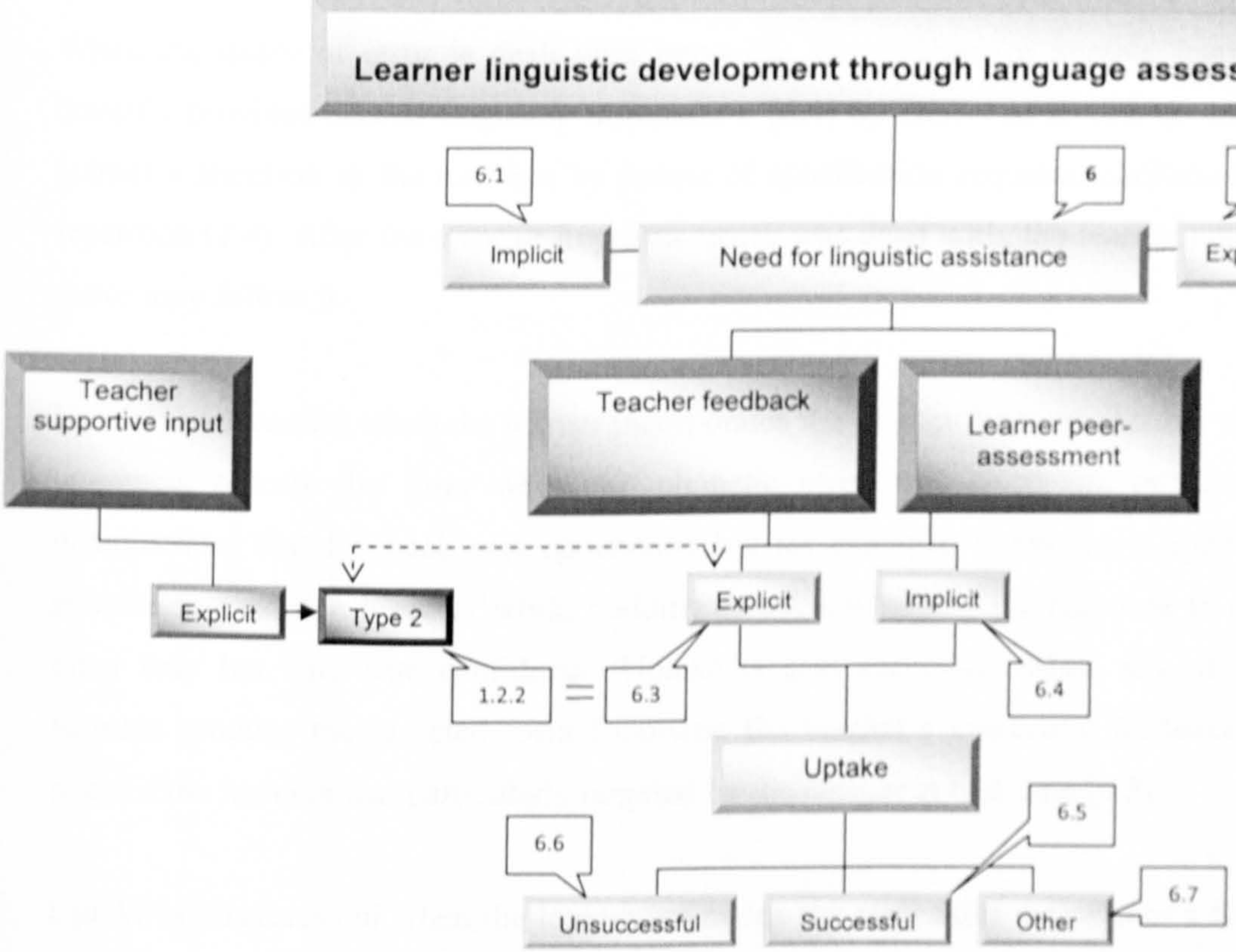
524	LT	Do you remember the word beginning with 'l'	
525	Mal		*Shrugs his shoulders*
533	LT	Lo-	
534	Mal		
535	LT	**Logical [...]**	*Silent*
539	LT	**it is an order that makes sense it is things that actually make sense... made sense to him...that because it was heaviest (tank) it must be the fullest... yes**	
540	CT	Ok we gonna have to stop there....	

In this example the teacher explicitly provides the learner (Mal) with linguistic information, that is, targeted word (*logical*) as a result of his struggle to answer (no response) the teacher's linguistic question even after being provided with an implicit linguistic prompt.

4.9.2 Error treatment sequence

The error treatment sequence used in this study was adapted from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment model. However, some adjustments were made to the categories to suit the purposes of the present study[39]. This sequence is presented below in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Error treatment sequence



The sequence begins with a request for linguistic assistance from the side of the learner, categorised as [**6**] in Figure 4.4. A learner may ask for linguistic assistance

[39] The present study adapts the following types of "repair" from Lyster and Ranta (1997): "repetition", "incorporation" and "self-repair" (2.4). These are coded as "successful uptake" in the present research. Learner "peer-repair" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) is also coded as "successful uptake" when no particular learner is targeted during interaction (2.4). The following types of "needs-repair" category (ibid) were used to develop "unsuccessful uptake" category for the present study: "same error", "different error", "partial repair" (2.4). Lyster and Ranta's (1997) "needs-repair: acknowledgement" can be coded either as "successful uptake", "unsuccessful" or "other uptake" depending on the situation, as presented further in this section. When the leaner utterance is "needs-repair: off target" or "hesitation" (ibid), they are coded as "other uptake" in this study. I also used Panova and Lyster's (2002) "no opportunity for uptake" category (2.4) as part of my "other uptake" category.

either *implicitly* [6.1] when making an error, or *explicitly* [6.2] when raising a linguistic query. The error or query may then be dealt with by the teacher, or other learners, explicitly or implicitly.

When the query or error is dealt with *explicitly,* the teacher or another learner, overtly provides relevant linguistic information [6.3] (4.9.1). This may be done by means of explicit correction or metalinguistic feedback (2.4).

When the query or error is dealt with *implicitly*, the teacher (or another learner) covertly provides needed linguistic information [6.4] by means of recasts or draws learner's attention to the problem by means of clarification requests, elicitation or repetition (2.4). After the error or linguistic query was dealt with, the learner uptake move may follow it.

Uptake is successful when the learner incorporates the correct form into his/her next utterance, repeats the form when the phonetic error was corrected, or clearly demonstrates that feedback was understood by, for example, correcting a spelling mistake in a written piece of work, nodding or acknowledging the response in any other way but with true confidence. Uptake is also successful when any of the learners produce the targeted form following the teacher's corrective feedback if none of the learners was particularly targeted by the teacher at that time [6.5].

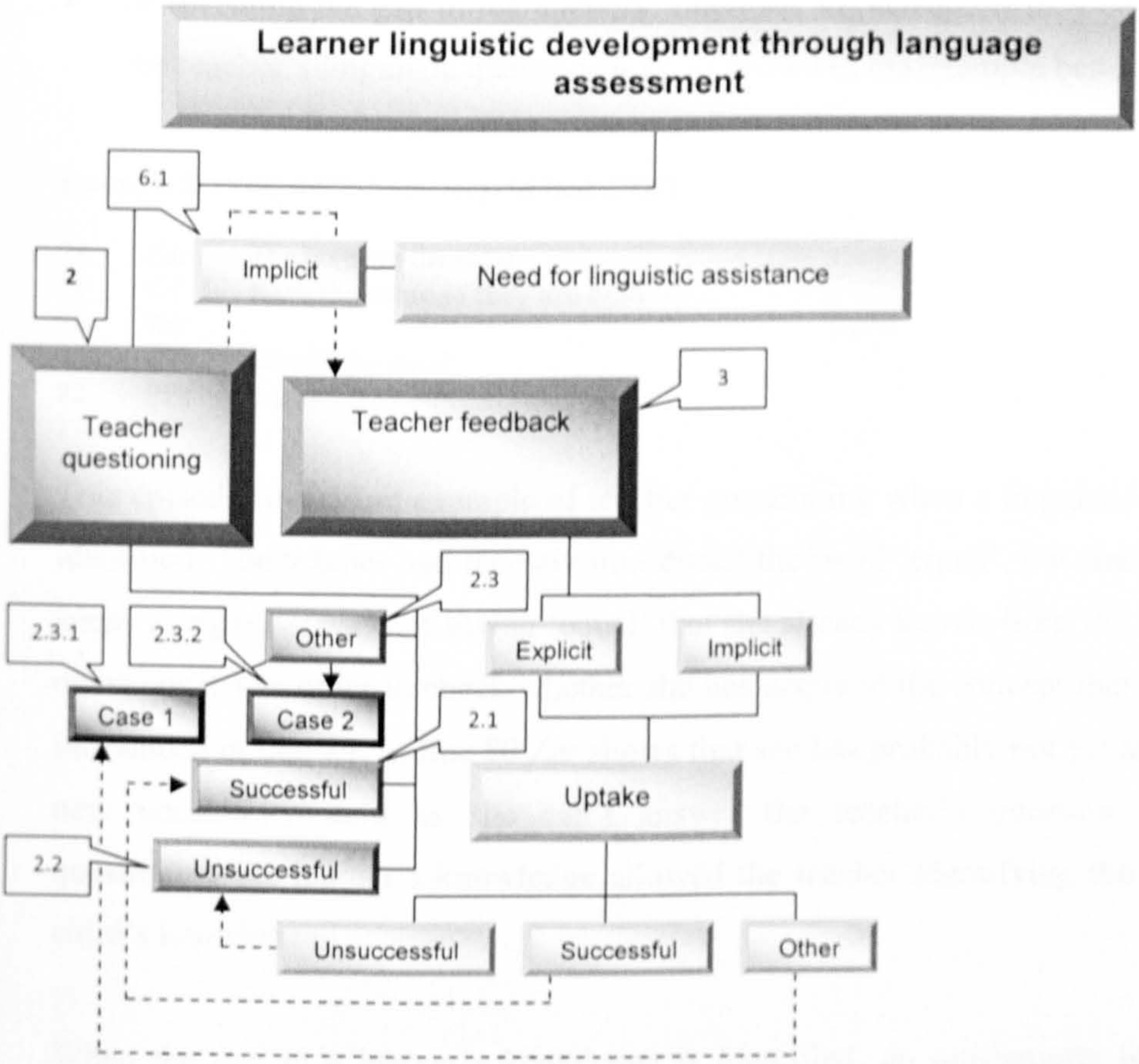
Uptake is unsuccessful when the learner maintains the error after the teacher's final attempt to correct it (final linguistic assistance move), produces another error related to the error being dealt with, partially repairs his/her error [6.6].

'Other' uptake moves are those which: do not provide clear picture on whether uptake was successful or not (for example, uncertain acknowledgement of the teacher's or other learner's correction from which it is unclear whether the learner understood feedback or not); generate off-target utterances (for example, topic continuation move or change of topic). Instances when there was no opportunity for uptake due to other learner's or the teacher's turn, following the linguistic feedback, or when production of uptake move was inappropriate are also coded as 'other' [6.7].

4.9.3 Teacher questioning

It will be recalled from 4.8 that the "teacher questioning" analytical category is based on the second component of the language assessment framework. Within this category, teachers may promote the development of learners' linguistic knowledge by asking, but not reinforcing, linguistic questions in the same turn, categorised as [**2**] in Figure 4.5 below.

Figure 4.5: Teacher questioning



Teacher questioning may allow:

- recalling linguistic information if the learners already know it, coded within [**2**],

Example 4: (Year 4-CT-Numeracy-06 June 2006)

2	CT	capacity… (CT writes word 'capacity' on the board) ok have a look at that word… **capacity what does it mean… what does that word mean… capacity**… Raj
3	Raj	Capacity means that… how much something holds
4	CT	Good boy… it means how much something holds…

The episode is an example of teacher questioning when no linguistic problem is identified. The teacher asks a vocabulary related question (what does *capacity* mean) in order to identify whether learners know what it means or whether they need some assistance (line 2). With teacher questioning, it is always the teacher who initiates the attention to language, not the learners. In line 3 Raj shows that he knows the target vocabulary, thus the purpose of this episode narrows down to recalling and reinforcing the meaning of the word.

- or revealing the gap in the learners' linguistic knowledge if they cannot answer the teacher's linguistic question **[6.1]**, as shown in the example below.

Example 5: (Year 4-CT-Numeracy- 06June 2006)

78	Zar	The both are the same	
79	CT	**Both the same so they are both –**	
80	Zar		*Silent*
81	CT	What's the word	
82	PPs	Equal	

This episode reveals an example of teacher questioning when a linguistic problem is identified. The teacher had recently introduced the word 'equal', but since some Zar keeps using other ways of saying 'equal' that she already knows (line 78), the teacher questions her in order to check whether she has acquired the concept that the teacher introduced in line 79. In line 80 Zar shows that she has probably not yet acquired the new vocabulary item as she can't answer the teacher's question. Therefore, questioning the learner's knowledge allowed the teacher identifying the gap in the child's knowledge.

When the gap in a learner's knowledge is identified, an opportunity for "teacher feedback" may arise [3] and the "teacher questioning" sequence may develop further, joining up with the "teacher feedback" category (4.9.4), eventually forming three more "teacher questioning" categories. These are: successful teacher questioning **[2.1]**, unsuccessful teacher questioning **[2.2]**, and other teacher questioning **[2.3]**. These categories are shown in the Figure 4.5 above and are explained below.

Teacher questioning is successful when the learner makes a successful uptake move (4.9.2) at the end of the "teacher questioning" sequence **[2.1]**.

Example 6: (Year 4-CT-Literacy-June 06)

403	CT	[///] not to just say my group done well... which word is wrong there anyway
404	Px	Well
405	CT	No there was nothing wrong with well
406	P14	Done well ... done
407	CT	What is wrong with done... My group –
408	P15	Did

This example presents successful teacher questioning, since after asking a linguistic question (line 403) which identified a gap in the learners' knowledge (line 404) and after providing feedback to the learners on their replies (lines 405 and 407), the teacher finally succeeds in eliciting target form (*did* well) (line 408).

Teacher questioning is unsuccessful when the learner makes an unsuccessful uptake move (4.9.2) at the end of the "teacher questioning" sequence **[2.2]**.

No instances of "unsuccessful teacher questioning" were identified in the data.

Teacher questioning is coded as other **[2.3]** in all cases when:

- uptake moves are coded as other **[2.3.1]** or

Example 7: (Year 4-LT-Numeracy-June 06)

32	LT	What shopping can you do without money
33	Dan	I like shopping
34	LT	[inaudible] pay for it
35	P2	[inaudible]
36	LT	Win-...
37	PPs	Silent
38	LT	It's window shopping
39	P4	What?
40	LT	Window shopping when you go and look into all the windows you think I'd like that and I'd like that but do not actually buy it window shopping does not cost you anything

The episode shows an example of "other teacher questioning" when learners, as a result of teacher's questioning and feedback (lines 32, 34, 36), did not produce successful or unsuccessful uptake move as the teacher right after revealing a targeted

item (*'window shopping'*) made a topic continuation move (line 40) after which learners carried on with their problem solving tasks and never came to the 'window shopping' topic again.

- when the teacher ignores the linguistic problem identified as result of questioning **[2.3.2]**.

Example 8: (Year 4-LT-Science-June 06)

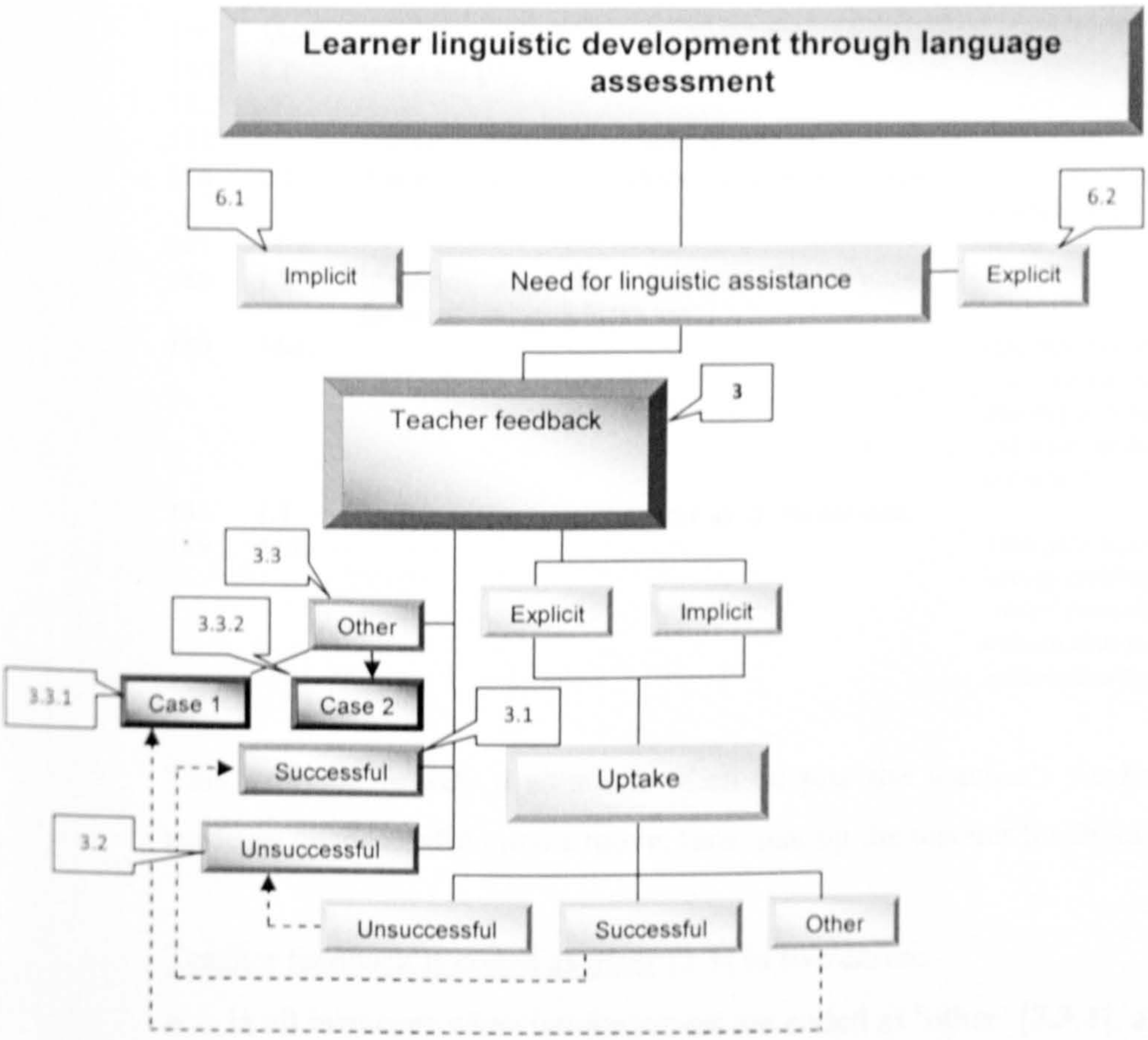
410	LT	What is an aphid (to Ifr)
411	Ifr	It's a .... a....
412	CT	A bit like 'elephant' that makes a 'f' sound ok *(not to Ifr, to the whole class)*

This episode presents an example of teacher questioning, even though successful in identifying a gap in learners' linguistic knowledge (line 411), but not developing any further than identification of the gap.

4.9.4 Teacher feedback

It will be recalled from 4.8 that the "teacher feedback" analytical category is based on the third component of the language assessment framework. Within this category, teachers may promote the learners' linguistic development by providing them with feedback on their linguistic errors **[6.1]** and linguistic queries **[6.2]** (4.9.2). Teacher feedback category, categorised as [3] in Figure 4.6 below, consists of three sub-categories each of which reflects the certain outcome of an error treatment sequence (4.9.2). These categories are: successful teacher feedback **[3.1]**, unsuccessful teacher feedback **[3.2]** and other teacher feedback **[3.3]**.

Figure 4.6: Teacher feedback



Teacher feedback is successful when the learner produces successful uptake (4.9.2) move following the feedback provided by the teacher [**3.1**].

Example 9: (Year 4-LT-Numeracy- 06 June 2006)

18	Ifr	Because five is a odd number
19	LT	Do we say a odd
20	Ifr	**An odd**

The example presents successful teacher feedback (line 19) since the learner's uptake move is successful – the learner is able to notice and correct her linguistic error (line 20).

Teacher feedback is unsuccessful when the learner makes unsuccessful uptake (4.9.2) move following the feedback provided by the teacher [**3.2**].

Example 10: (Year 4-LT-Science-June 06)

179	Moh	A ant	
180/	LT	Is it a ant [///]	
182/			*Takes one more whiteboard*
184		I just gonna explain something to (Moh)	
186	LT	Ant starts with an 'a' which is one of the vowels	*writes down 'ant' on the whiteboard*
187	Moh		*Nods*
188	LT	If you say 'a ant' this is very difficult so it needs the word 'an' so it is 'an ant'	
189	Moh		*Imitates correction of 'a ant' into 'an ant' in his book by moving a pencil on top of his spelling but he did not actually correct it*
194	LT	'An' meaning 'one' the same as 'a' means one	
189	Moh		*Moh also has not corrected his wrong spelling of 'ant' which is 'anite' even though LT has written that word on a whiteboard for him*

This example reveals a situation when despite the teacher's feedback the learner made an unsuccessful uptake move, thus making the teacher feedback unsuccessful.

Teacher feedback is coded as other **[3.3]** in two cases:

- in all instances when uptake moves are coded as 'other' **[3.3.1]**; and

Example 11: (Year 4-CT-Literacy- 15 June 2006)

328	Dan	Decisions	*Pronounces as dislZus*
329	CT	Decision	*Pronounces correctly – dislZIIn*
330	Dan	We put document starfish	

The episode presents an example of a learner making a topic continuation move (line 330) right after the explicit feedback (line 329) was provided to her linguistic error (line 328). This makes it unclear whether the feedback reached its target or not.

Example 12: (Year 4-CT-Literacy- 15 June 2006)

228	CT	He thoughts the balls which balls
229	Pau	A fire balls
230	CT	Oh the fire balls he just throws them where
231	Pau	He throws them

This episode reveals an example when there is no opportunity for learner uptake due to the teacher's topic continuation move immediately following her feedback move (line 230).

- when the teacher does not provide feedback to linguistic error or query produced by the learner [3.3.2]. This may happen when:

(1) the teacher cannot respond to linguistic error/query as he/she is busy with someone or something and cannot hear the request for linguistic assistance.

Example 13: (Year 4-CT-Literacy-June 08)

107	Kar	Em... there... you don't need that *are* you	
108	Sh	You just jump here	*CT works with another group of learners*

The example presents a situation when the teacher cannot respond to the learner's linguistic error (line 107) as she was working with another group of learners at that moment and could not hear the request for linguistic assistance.

(2) the teacher (or another learner) changes or continues the topic right after the linguistic error or query occurred (that is, ignores the error or query).

Example 14: (Year 4-CT-Literacy-June 15)

4	Px	Do it *with* yourself [inaudible]
5	CT	**If you finish you need to your envoy needs to sort out what they are going to say...**

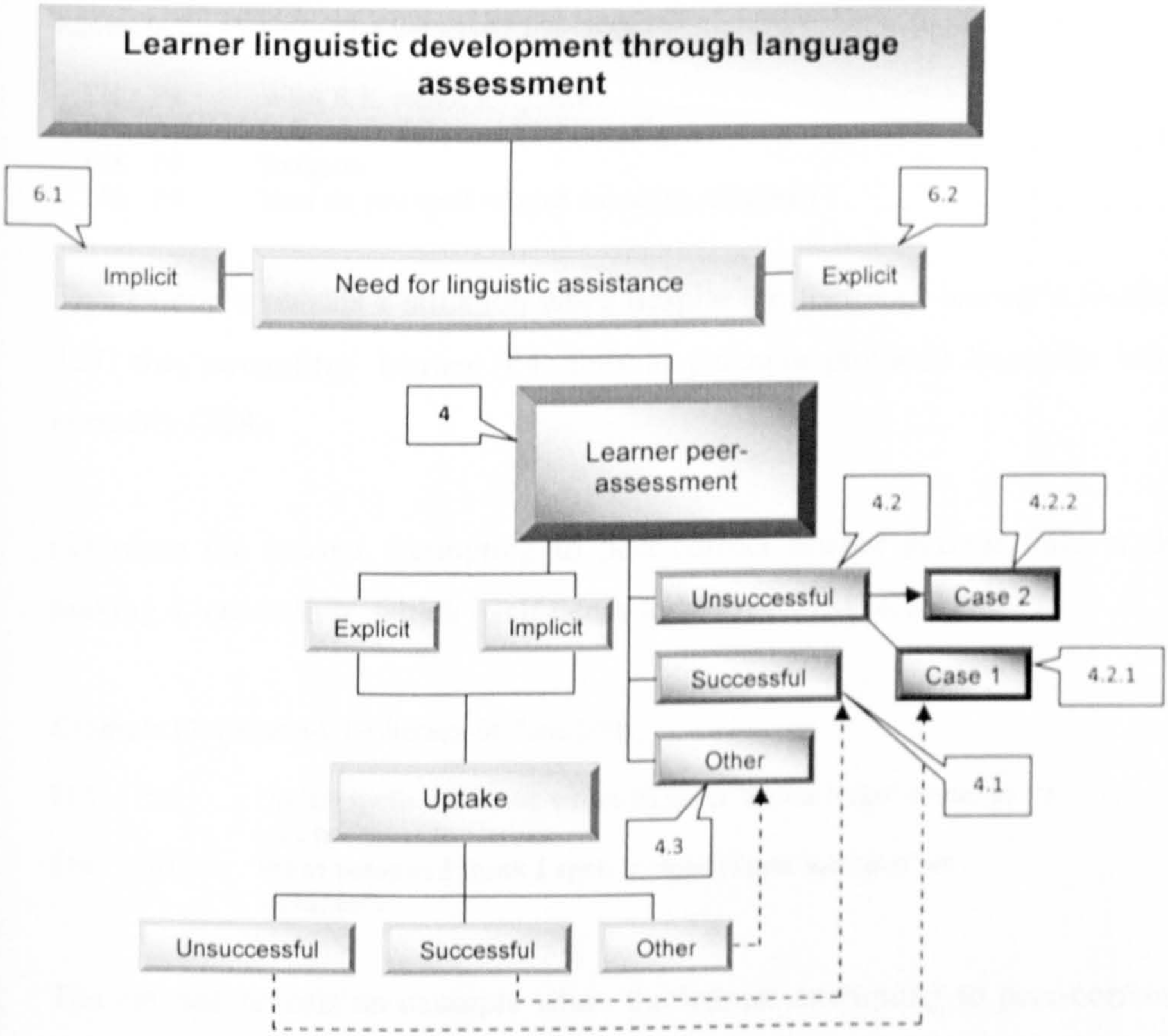
This episode presents an instance when the teacher ignores the learner's error and makes a topic continuation move (line 5) right after the linguistic error occurred (line 4).

4.9.5 Learner peer-assessment

It will be recalled from 4.8 that learner peer-assessment category is based on the fourth component of the language assessment framework. Within this category, learners may promote their peer's linguistic development by providing them with

feedback on linguistic errors [**6.1**] and linguistic queries [**6.2**]. Learner peer-assessment category, categorised as [**4**] in the Figure 4.7 below, consists of three sub-categories each of which, similar to the sub-categories of the teacher feedback category, reflects the certain outcome of an error treatment sequence (4.9.2). These sub-categories are: successful learner peer-assessment [**4.1**], unsuccessful learner peer-assessment [**4.2**] and other learner peer-assessment [**4.3**].

Figure 4.7: Learner peer-assessment



Learner peer-assessment is successful when the learner makes successful uptake move following the feedback provided by his/her peer [**4.1**].

Example 15: (Year 4-CT-Literacy-15 June 2006)

141	Kar	USE YOUR LOGBOOK RECORDS TO SHOW TWO AL- ALTERNATIVE (Reads alternative as alt[e]rn[ei]tive)
142	Px	alternative
143	Kar	**ALTERNATIVE** WAYS IN WHICH JOSHUA CAN ANSWER THE QUESTION IN THE LAB. FOR EXAMPLE

The example presents successful use of peer-assessment since the 'struggling' learner's uptake move is successful (line 143) – the learner corrects his linguistic error (line 141) after the feedback was provided to him by his peer (line 142).

Learner peer-assessment is unsuccessful **[4.2]** when:
(1) the learner makes an unsuccessful uptake move following the feedback provided by his/her peer **[4.2.1]**; and

Example 16: (Year 5-CT-Literacy-07 June 2006)

126.	P4	What R.E. stands for... R.E.
127.	Roh	Religious education
128.	P4	Religion
130.	P4	How do you spell religion (meaning religious)

This example reveals a situation when despite the 'helping' learner's feedback (line 127) the 'struggling' learner (P4) fails to perceive provided linguistic information correctly (128).

(2) when the learner attempting to peer-correct his/her partner fails to do so by making a 'correction' which itself needs to be corrected **[4.2.2]**.

Example 17: (Year 4-LT-Literacy-06 June 2006)

213	Sh	Under (spells out as she writes it) water Writes 'cage' comes to Ifr asks her to write octopus
214	Ifr	What octopus I think I spelt it right (Spelt 'octopus' as 'octapus')

The episode reveals an example when the learner attempting to peer-correct his/her partner fails to do so by making 'correction' which itself needs to be corrected (line 214).

Learner peer-assessment is coded as other in all instances when uptake moves are coded as 'other' **[4.3]**.

Example 18: (Year 4-LT-Literacy- 06 June 2006)

265	Ifr	pass the [inaudible] pen
266	Kar	Why
267	Ifr	Quickly (points to 'o' in 'gate' it is spelt as 'gote')
268	Sh	Gate way
269	Ifr	Look see it
270	Kar	I can see a line here (pointing to dash)
271	Ifr	That that the 'a'
272	ST[40]	**I was very impressed I haven't seen your class before I was impressed with what I've seen this morning... now... the key thing...**

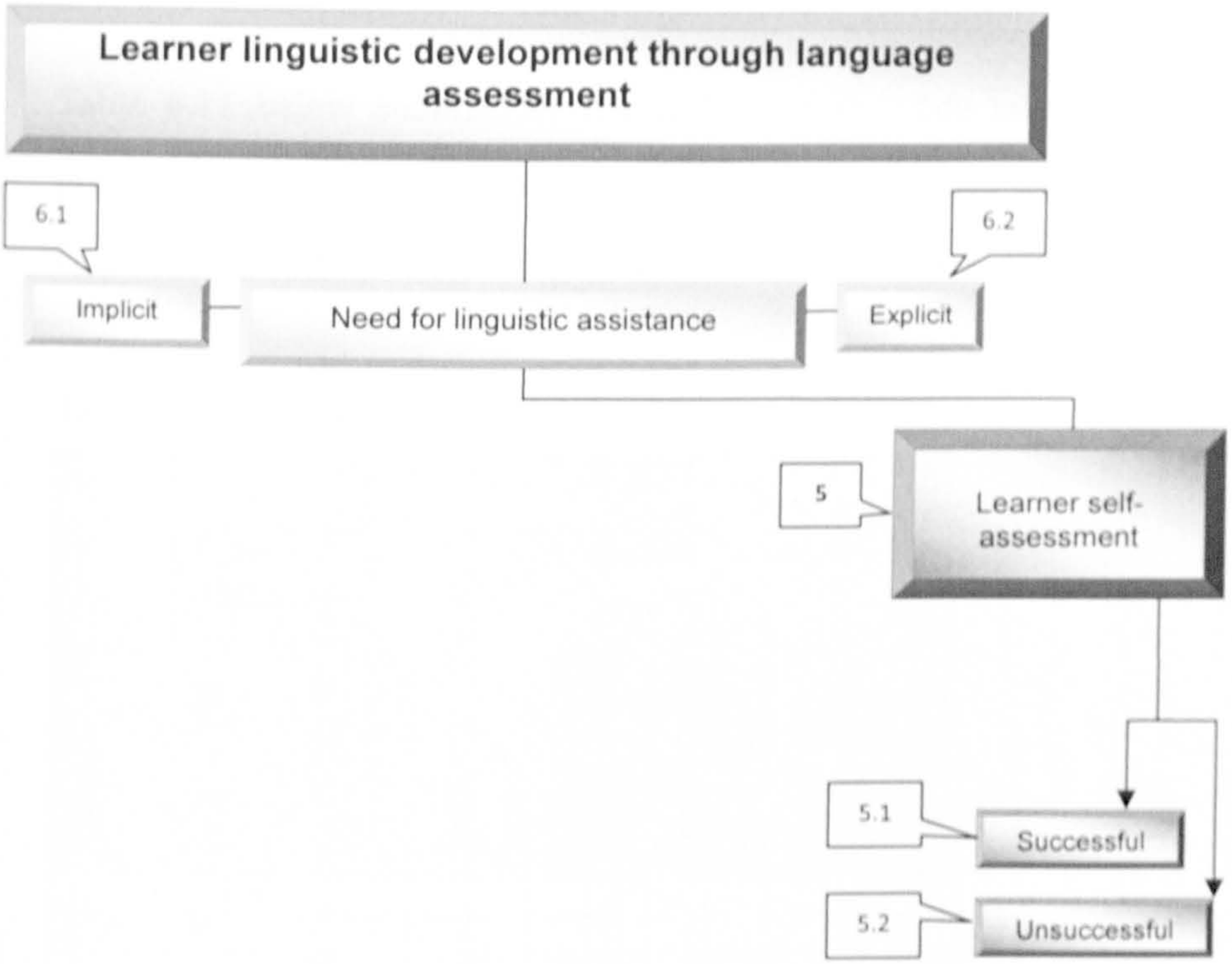
The episode shows a situation when there is no opportunity for learners to make an uptake move in reaction to the feedback provided to them by their peer as there is a teacher's topic continuation move (272) immediately following the correction (271).

4.9.6 Learner self-assessment

It will be recalled from 4.8 that the learner self-assessment category is based on the fifth component of the language assessment framework. Within this category, learners may contribute to their own linguistic development by self-assessing their language and attempting to correct their linguistic errors **[6.1]** as well as fill the gaps in their linguistic knowledge **[6.2]** by themselves in the first instance. The learner self-assessment category **[5]** in Figure 4.8 below, consists of two sub-categories: successful self-assessment **[5.1]** and unsuccessful self-assessment **[5.2]**.

[40] ST – Supply teacher

Figure 4.8: Learner self-assessment



Learner self-assessment is successful when the learner succeeds in self-correcting an error [**5.1**].

Example 19: (Year 4-LT-Numeracy-06 June 2006)

1	Sop	Because if if [inaudible] was a hundred and seven was a ten we would had a zero as a **ho- hold place a place holder**

The episode reveals that the learner succeeded in noticing and correcting her error without any help being provided to her by a teacher or another learner.

Learner self-assessment is unsuccessful when the learner fails to self-correct an error [**5.2**].

Example 20: (Year 4-LT-Numeracy-06 June 2006)

105	P1	Miss miss is it **necesseri- necesseri-**
106	LT	Necessary
107	P1	Necessary… odd number could be any

This episode reveals an example of a learner noticing her linguistic error but being unable to correct it by her efforts only (line 105).

Table 4.11 below summarises the coding of the data taken from the examples presented above. Ticks (✓) stand for the coding categories targeted in the examples. Crosses (*x*) stand for other categories identified in the examples.

Table 4.11: Data coding

Example	(1) TSI		(2) TQ	NfLA		(2) TQ/TF or (3) TF						(4) LPA						(5) LSA	
	Procedure					Procedure			Outcome			Procedure			Outcome			Outcome	
	Explicit TSI (1)	Implicit		Explicit	Implicit	Explicit / TSI (2)	Implicit	Other (2)	Successful	Unsuccessful	Other (1)	Explicit / FLI (2)	Implicit	Unsuccessful (2)	Successful	Unsuccessful (1)	Other	Successful	Unsuccessful
1		✓																	
2	✓																		
3			x		x	✓					x								
4			✓																
5			✓		✓		x		x										
6			✓		x		x		✓										
7			✓		x	x					✓								
8			✓		x			✓											
9					x		x		✓										
10					x	x				✓									
11					x	x					✓								
12					x		x				✓								
13					x			✓											
14					x			✓											
15					x							x			✓				
16				x								x				✓			
17				x										✓					
18					x							x					✓		
19																		✓	
20					x	x			x										✓

TSI	Teacher supportive input	LSA	Learner self-assessment
TQ	Teacher questioning	NfLA	Need for linguistic assistance
TF	Teacher feedback	(1)	Type/Case 1
LPA	Learner peer-assessment	(2)	Type/Case 2

It should also be noted here that identification, as well as decision-making, about the coding of episodes was not unproblematic. For example, some episodes were too complex to code using the developed categories. Therefore, they were firstly

collapsed into smaller complete episodes and only then coded. Moreover, it was difficult to differentiate in some episodes whether attention was paid to language or to content.

4.10 Reliability and validity of the research

On reliability, McDonough and McDonough (1997: 63) state that "in any kind of measurement, reliability concerns the confidence the user can have that the measure will give the same answer given the same thing to measure". In the present study, reliability conditions are analysed with reference to data collection (i), transcription (ii), coding (iii) and analysis (iv). These are presented below.

(i) Reliability of data collection: The data for the study were collected in intact classrooms over a three week period. It is therefore assumed that the lessons observed reflected routine teaching and learning practices. In addition, even though during data collection procedure the researcher was present in the classrooms (4.7), she was there as a non-participant observer, thus influencing the flow of the lessons to the least possible extent.

(ii) Reliability of data transcription: While transcribing the data both audio and video recordings were used, thus minimising the possibility of producing incomplete or inaccurate transcripts. Moreover, the use of video data allowed taking notes of specific children and teacher behaviours which could not have been possible if only audio tapes were used for data transcription (4.7).

(iii) Reliability of data coding: since the present study developed its own analytical categories, on the bases of categories developed by other researchers (Lyster and Ranta, 1997), these categories were checked for reliability. Reliability checking was undertaken in two ways. Firstly this researcher coded the data at different times in order to address issues of intra-rater reliability, that is, reveal how consistent she was in applying the codings; the percentage of agreement between coding sessions yielded 97%. Secondly, I trained another researcher to use the analytical categories and asked her to code 15% of the data as independent coder. A test of interrater

reliability yielded a 0.93 level of agreement between the two researchers (see Appendix 4.1).

(iv) Reliability of data analysis: Evaluating the research data and examining various statistical methods allowed selecting and employing the most appropriate of them for the data analysis (5.3). A review of statistical methods used by other researchers who conducted research using datasets similar to mine has also contributed to choosing relevant statistical techniques and therefore increased reliability of the present study's data analysis (2.6 and 3.4).

To increase the internal and external validity of this research study, the following actions were performed:

(i) Internal validity: Internal validity or "credibility" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) reveals "whether interpretation of data accords with reality" (McDonough and McDonough, 1997: 63). To increase the internal validity of the study interviews with targeted participants were conducted in order to reveal whether my interpretation of the classroom realities were in line with those of the teachers and learners.

External validity: External validity, or generalizability, has to do with "whether it is possible from the data interpretation to suggest that other participants [in similar contexts will reveal similar practices and will behave] in the same way" (ibid). External validity of the study was verified by comparing the findings from the present research with the findings from other studies which explored similar contexts under similar conditions. Besides that, the fact that the study took place in *intact* classrooms suggests that there is a high probability that its outcomes will be replicable in other similar contexts.

4.11 Ethical issues

The study was undertaken in line with the British Association for Applied Linguistics Recommendations on Good Practice and the British Educational

Research Association Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research[41]. Since the present study involved people as its participants the following procedures were carried out to ensure that the participants' rights were protected and not affected by the research procedures or outcomes.

First of all, prior to the study I made sure that I complied with the legal requirements in relation to working with school children by obtaining an Enhanced Criminal Record Certificate within the meaning of sections 115 and116 of the Police Act 1997 from Criminal Records Bureau.

Secondly, I ensured that all the research participants were informed about the research focus, its duration, objectives, and procedures of data collection. All the research participants, targeted and non-targeted, had this information explained to them orally by the LT; the research targeted participants also had this information presented to them on the covering page of their consent forms (Appendices 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4). In addition, the participants were provided with my contact details and could refer to me any issues regarding the research or its procedures at any time.

Since in the study there were targeted participants and non-targeted participants - as was mentioned above - the extent of their participation in the research and the risks of being affected by the research procedures and outcomes differed. For this reason, the targeted research participants were asked to give their consent for participation by completing special consent forms prepared by myself. Informed consent was also obtained from the research participants' parents, since the research participants were children under 16 years old. For the rest of the participants the school's consent forms, completed by the learners' parents on their children's inclusion to the school, were used to reveal whether the learners were or were not allowed to participate in the research. Copies of these forms have been retained by me. An example of the school consent form is presented in Figure 4.9 below.

[41] Both documents were uploaded from the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol, intranet at http://www.bris.ac.uk/education/research/centres/creole/resources/ethics

Figure 4.9: An example of the target school's consent form

MCT1 – LH5*

	Photo /Prospectus	Photo /Curr	Video /Curr	News Letter	Web Cam	Media	Web Site	CCC Web Site	CCC Publications
P1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	×	✓
P2	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	×
P3	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
P4	✓	✓	✓	×	×	✓	✓	✓	✓

* Year group/class code

The consent forms were distributed to the three teachers who had agreed to participate in the research on my initial visit to the target school. LT distributed consent forms to the four targeted learners and their parents. All the consent forms were signed and returned to me within a few days. Examination of the targeted school consent forms revealed that there were two learners, both none targeted, whose parents did not give permission for their children to be video recorded. Both of these children were in Year 5 class. I made every effort to avoid any type of recording of these children.

The third ethical procedure to ensure that the participants' rights were protected was that at the beginning of the study the research participants were explicitly informed about the procedures for keeping their identities confidential, and about their right to withdraw from the study at any stage. These allowed the teachers, learners and their parents to make their initial decision on whether they wanted to participate in the study or not.

Fourthly, it was recognised that participants could have experienced distress or discomfort in the research process. To reduce this sense of intrusion and to put the participants in their ease I stayed with them in the classrooms and piloted data collection for one week prior to the main study (4.6).

I also recognised a general responsibility to participants and respected their rights, interests, sensitivities, and privacy. Therefore, in addition to covering the ethical

issues already presented in this section, (1) the permission was sought from all research participants for the data to be used for the research purposes, in research publications and reports and (2) explicit agreement on the conditions of data disclosure and publication was made with the targeted participants through completion of the consent forms (see above).

Finally, every effort was made to maintain the anonymity and confidentiality of the data since it was the property of the research participants. Confidentiality and anonymity with regard to the identity of the school, teachers and pupils was maintained by amending all teachers' names by using abbreviations (e.g. CT2, LT) and all children's names by using only the first three letters from them (e.g. Roh, Ala; or Px – when it was not possible to identify the child; or P1, P2, P3 when it was not possible to identify several children).

4.12 Summary

This chapter outlined the research approach taken to the study (4.2), presented its research questions and hypotheses (4.3), set the context (4.4 and 4.5), outlined the pilot study (4.6) and revealed then data collection procedures (4.7), detailed the methodology for the qualitative analysis of the transcribed classroom data (4.9), addressed issues of reliability and validity (4.10), and considered ethical issues (4.11).

In the following chapter I present the analyses and findings from the present research.

PART IV ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

CHAPTER FIVE ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

This chapter presents the analyses of the findings. Firstly, I identify the procedures used in preparing the datasets (5.2). In the next section (5.3), I analyse quantitatively the data for the RQs that investigated types (RQ1), occurrence, frequency of occurrence (RQ2), impact (RQ3), effectiveness and extent of effectiveness (RQ4) of language assessment strategies. The interview data are then presented (5.4) in relation to the teachers' and learners' perceptions of language assessment (RQ5). The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the main findings from these analyses (5.5).

5.2 Preparing the data set

The data were prepared for analyses in the following two ways. Firstly, the dataset was checked for errors by inspecting the frequencies for each of variables and identifying (1) values that fell outside the range of possible values for a variable, and (2) missing values. The error check resulted in identification of one missing value and one value that fell outside the range of possible values for a variable, and necessary corrections were made.

Secondly, as the data were examined by three independent variables, namely subject area, lesson phase and teacher's role, the lessons observed were grouped according to these variables into 12 groups, or group combinations, as shown in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Group combinations (GC)

		Lesson led by (teacher's role)					
		Language teacher (LT)			Classroom teacher (CT)		
		Subject area					
		Literacy (L)	Numeracy (N)	Science (S)	Literacy (L)	Numeracy (N)	Science (S)
Lesson phase	Group work (GW)	**GC 1** GW/LT/L	**GC2** GW/LT/N	**GC3** GW/LT/S	**GC7** GW/CT/L	**GC8** GW/CT/N	**GC9** GW/CT/S
	Plenary session (PS)	**GC4** PS/LT/L	**GC5** PS/LT/N	**GC6** PS/LT/S	**GC10** PS/CT/L	**GC11** PS/CT/N	**GC12** PS/CT/S

The table shows that, for example, *group work (GW)* sessions which took place during *literacy lessons (L)* taught by *language teacher (LT)*, formed first group combination (GC1). Other group combinations were formed in similar way.

Since each group combination lasted for a different period of time, the data from some of them were under-sampled and data from others were over-sampled. In order to make group combinations as equal as possible in terms of their duration, a weight variable was determined for each group combination, as presented in Appendix 5.1.

5.3 Quantitative data analyses

This section presents the statistical analyses for the first four RQs, which focused on language assessment in relation to: types (5.3.1), occurrence and frequency of occurrence (5.3.2), impact (5.3.3), effectiveness and extent of effectiveness (5.3.4). The computational work was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 12.0.1.

5.3.1 Types of language assessment

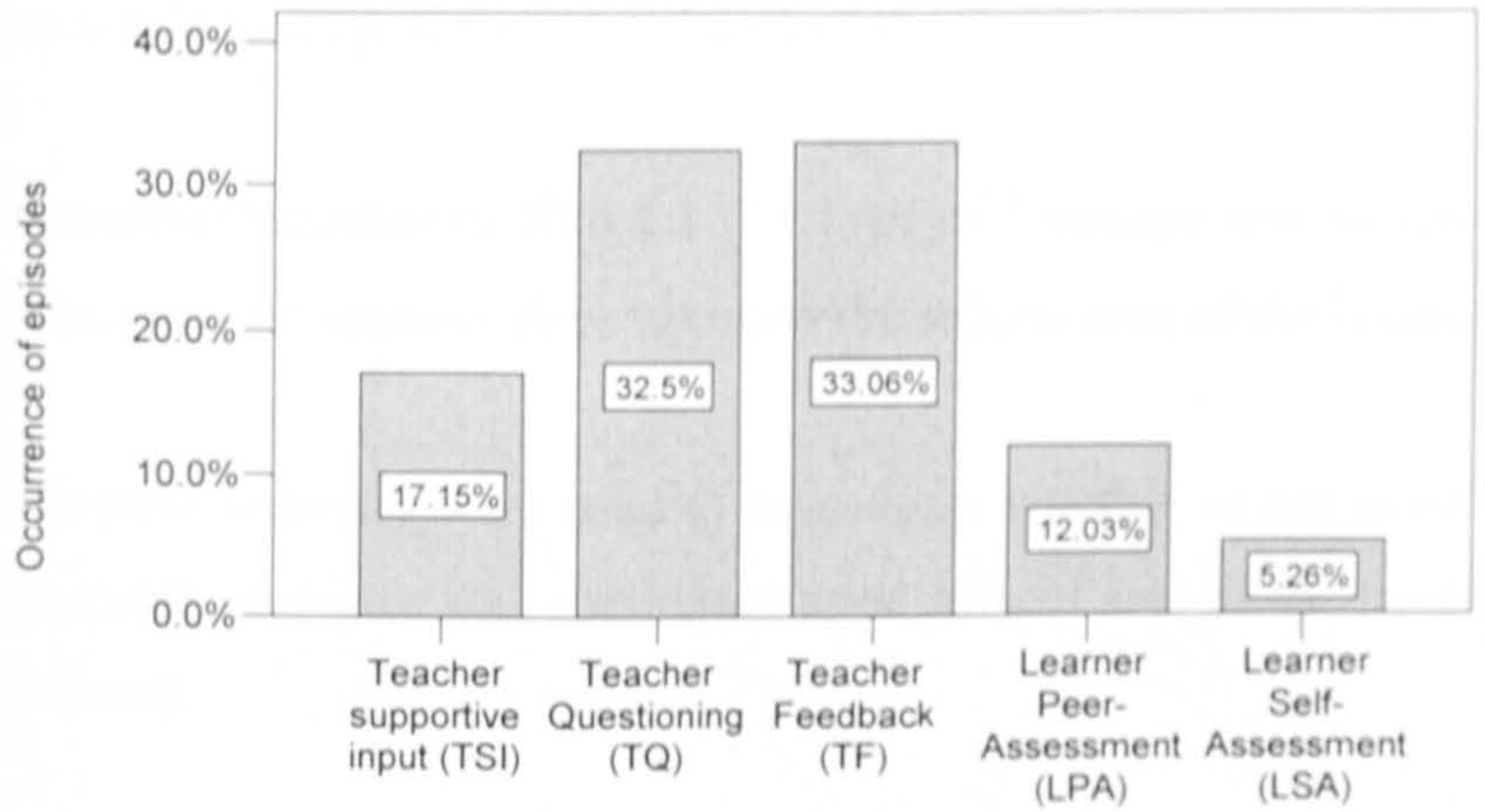
Descriptive statistics were used to investigate the first research question, namely:

RQ1: Which language assessment strategies, if any, do teachers and learners use in immersion classrooms to support and promote learners' linguistic development?

As evidenced from Figure 5.1 below, five language assessment strategies were used in the observed classrooms to assess, support and promote learners' linguistic development, as follows:

- three language assessment strategies were used by the teachers: supportive input, questioning and feedback;
- two language assessment strategies were used by the learners: peer-assessment and self-assessment.

Figure 5.1: Language assessment strategies



This figure also reveals that linguistic questioning and feedback were the most frequent language assessment strategies used by the teachers, whereas peer-assessment was the most frequently used by the learners. Additionally, taking into account the total duration of all lessons and the total number of language assessment episodes, that is episodes initiated by both the teachers and the learners, it may be calculated that one episode on average occurred every 2.5 minutes. When only the teacher initiated assessment episodes are counted (that is, teacher supportive input, teacher questioning and teacher feedback), then it appears that each such episode on average occurred every 3.15 minutes. More specifically, each 'teacher supportive input' episode occurred every 15 minutes; each 'teacher questioning' episode - every 8 minutes; each 'teacher feedback' episode every - 8 minutes; each 'learner peer-assessment' episode - every 18 minutes and each 'learner self-assessment' episode - every 52 minutes.

In summary, the findings show that teachers and learners used wide range of language assessment strategies to assess, support and promote learners' linguistic development.

5.3.2 Variables influencing type and frequency of LA strategies

I Subject area

(i) On the assumption that the use of language assessment strategies in different subject areas, namely literacy, numeracy and science will not lead to a differential occurrence of these strategies, the Research Hypothesis $H_0$2.1 (i) is as follows:

H_o2.1 (i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject area of the lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 2.1 (i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the subject area of the lesson.

Descriptive statistics were used to investigate whether or not occurrence of language assessment strategies was contingent upon subject area of the lessons. The results are as follows.

Table 5.2: LA strategies by subject area

			LA Strategy					
			TSI	TQ	TF	LPA	LSA	Total
Subject	Literacy	Count	58	163	69	45	8	343
		% within Subject	16.9%	47.5%	20.1%	13.1%	2 3%	100 0%
	Numeracy	Count	23	21	45	13	10	112
		% within Subject	20.5%	18.8%	40.2%	11.6%	8 9%	100 0%
	Science	Count	43	51	125	29	20	268
		% within Subject	16.0%	19.0%	46.6%	10.8%	7.5%	100 0%
Total		Count	124	235	239	87	38	723
		% within Subject	17.2%	32.5%	33.1%	12.0%	5.3%	100 0%

It can be observed from the Table 5.2 above, that types of language assessment were not contingent upon subject areas as each language assessment strategy was used during all subject lessons. Therefore, we do not reject the H_o2.1 (i).

(ii) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during different subjects will not lead to differential frequency of these strategies' use, the Research Hypothesis H_o2.1 (ii) is as follows:

H_o2.1 (ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject matter of the lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 2.1 (ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the subject matter of the lesson.

Chi-squared tests for goodness of fit were conducted to investigate whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship at the level of $p < 0.05$ between the independent variables (literacy, numeracy and science) of a single dependant, categorical variable (each LA strategy). Since there were five different language assessment strategies, each was analysed individually, as presented below.

Table 5.3 analysed teacher supportive input by the subject lesson. The analysis revealed a statistically strong relationship between frequency of the teachers' use of supportive linguistic input and the subject area of the lesson ($df = 2, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.3: Teacher supportive input by subject area

	Subject
Chi-Square [a]	14.919
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.001

[a] 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 41.3.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Literacy	58	41.3	16.7
Numeracy	23	41.3	-18.3
Science	43	41.3	1.7
Total	124		

Chi-squared = 14.919, $d.f. = 2, p < 0.05$

Further, more teacher supportive input episodes were observed in literacy and science than in numeracy lessons.

Table 5.4 examined teacher questioning across the three subject areas. Again, the findings showed that there was a statistically strong relationship between frequency of teacher questioning and the subject lessons ($df = 2, p < 0.05$), with greater frequency observed in literacy than in numeracy and science lessons.

Table 5.4: Teacher questioning by subject area

	Subject
Chi-Square [a]	143.013
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

[a] 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 78.3.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Literacy	163	78.3	84.7
Numeracy	21	78.3	-57.3
Science	51	78.3	-27.3
Total	235		

Chi-squared = 143.013, $d.f. = 2, p < 0.05$

Findings presented in the next table (Table 5.5) focused on teacher feedback in the three subject areas. It was observed that there were significantly more instances of teacher feedback in science than in literacy and numeracy lessons ($df = 2, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.5: Teacher feedback by subject area

	Subject
Chi-Square [a]	42.310
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 79.7.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Literacy	69	79.7	-10.7
Numeracy	45	79.7	-34.7
Science	125	79.7	45.3
Total	239		

Chi-squared = 42.310, $d.f. = 2, p < 0.05$

Likewise, it can be observed from Tables 5.6 and 5.7 below that the frequency of teacher language assessment strategies was affected by the subject area of the lessons, as was the frequency of learner language assessment strategies. More instances of learner peer-assessment in literacy and science than in numeracy lessons were observed ($df = 2, p < 0.05$) (Table 5.6). Further, more instances of learner self-assessment in science than in literacy and numeracy lessons ($df = 2, p < 0.05$) were observed (Table 5.7).

Table 5.6: Learner peer-assessment by subject area

	Subject
Chi-Square [a]	17.655
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

[a] 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 29.0.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Literacy	45	29.0	16.0
Numeracy	13	29.0	-16.0
Science	29	29.0	.0
Total	87		

Chi-squared = 17.655, $d.f. = 2, p < 0.05$

Table 5.7: Learner self-assessment by subject area

	Subject
Chi-Square [a]	6.526
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.038

[a] 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 12 7.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Literacy	8	12.7	-4.7
Numeracy	10	12.7	-2.7
Science	20	12.7	7.3
Total	38		

Chi-squared = 6.526, $d.f. = 2, p < 0.05$

In summary, the findings from the chi-squared analyses presented above (Tables 5.2 to 5.7) revealed that the frequency of both the teachers' and learners' use of language assessment strategies were influenced by the subject lesson being taught. Therefore, we reject the $H_0$2.1 (ii) and accept the $H_1$2.1 (ii).

II Lesson phase

(i) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during different lesson phases, i.e. in group work and plenary sessions, will not lead to differential occurrence of language assessment types during these phases, the Research Hypothesis $H_0$2.2 (i) is as follows:

$H_0$2.2 (i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the phase of the lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 2.2 (i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the phase of the lesson.

As with the previous analyses (5.3.2 – I (i)), descriptive statistics were used to investigate the distribution of language assessment types for each lesson phase.

Table 5.8: LA strategies by lesson phase

			LA strategy					
			TSI	TQ	TF	LPA	LSA	Total
Lesson phase	Group work	Count	30	42	120	75	28	295
		% within Lesson phase	10.2%	14.2%	40.7%	25.4%	9 5%	100 0%
	Plenary session	Count	94	193	119	12	10	428
		% within Lesson phase	22.0%	45.1%	27.8%	2 8%	2.3%	100 0%
Total		Count	124	235	239	87	38	723
		% within Lesson phase	17.2%	32.5%	33.1%	12.0%	5.3%	100 0%

Table 5.8 reveals that the distribution of language assessment strategies did not depend upon lesson phase as each language assessment strategy was observed in both group work and plenary sessions. Therefore, we do not reject the $H_0$2.2 (i).

(ii) On the assumption that the use of language assessment strategies during the different lesson phases will lead to differential frequency of language assessment strategy use, the Research Hypothesis $H_0$2.2 (ii) is expressed as follows:

$H_0$2.2 (ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the lesson phase.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 2.2 (ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the lesson phase.

Similar to the previous analyses (5.3.2 – I (ii)), Chi-squared tests of significance were used to investigate whether a statistically significant relationship existed between the independent variables (group work and plenary session) and the dependant, categorical variable (each language assessment strategy).

The findings in Tables 5.9 and 5.10 below investigated teacher supportive input and questioning respectively, by lesson phase. These show that in both cases there was a statistically significant relationship between the language assessment type and lesson phase. The findings also revealed that both teacher supportive input and questioning were occurred more frequently in plenary sessions than in group work ($df = 1$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.9: Teacher supportive input by lesson phase

	Lesson phase
Chi-Square [a]	33.032
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 62.0.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Group work	30	62.0	-32.0
Plenary	94	62.0	32.0
Total	124		

Chi-squared = 33.032, $d.f. = 1$, $p < 0.05$

Table 5.10: Teacher questioning by lesson phase

	Lesson phase
Chi-Square [a]	97.026
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 117.5.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Group work	42	117.5	-75.5
Plenary	193	117.5	75.5
Total	235		

Chi-squared = 97.026, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

However, unlike the findings presented above, no statistically significant relationship was found between teacher feedback and lesson phase ($df = 1, p > 0.05$); teachers used feedback equally often during both lesson phases (Table 5.11)

Table 5.11: Teacher feedback by lesson phase

	Lesson phase
Chi-Square [a]	.004
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.948

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 119.5.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Group work	120	119.5	.5
Plenary session	119	119.5	-.5
Total	239		

Chi-squared = .004, $d.f. = 1, p > 0.05$

The following two tables (Tables 5.12 and 5.13) investigated learner peer-assessment and self-assessment respectively, by lesson phase. From these tables we observe that in both cases the observed language assessment types were used by learners more often in group work than in plenary sessions ($df = 1, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.12: Learner peer-assessment by lesson phase

	Lesson phase
Chi-Square [a]	45.621
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 43.5.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Group work	75	43.5	31.5
Plenary	12	43.5	-31.5
Total	87		

Chi-squared = 45.621, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

Table 5.13: Learner self-assessment by lesson phase

	Lesson phase
Chi-Square [a]	8.526
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.004

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 19.0.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Group work	28	19.0	9.0
Plenary	10	19.0	-9.0
Total	38		

Chi-squared = 8.526, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

Summarising the findings from Tables 5.9 – 5.13, it was shown that frequency of teachers supportive input and questioning, as well as learner peer-assessment and self-assessment was contingent upon the lesson phase, whereas the frequency of teacher feedback was not. Therefore, in the first four cases we reject the $H_0$2.1 (ii) and accept the $H_1$2.1 (ii); and in the fifth case we do not reject the $H_0$2.1 (ii).

III Teacher's role

(i) On the assumption that there will be no difference in the occurrence of language assessment strategies during lessons led by teachers with different roles, i.e. CT and LT, the Research Hypothesis $H_0$2.3 (i) is as follows:

$H_0$2.3 (i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson, or activity (1.3).

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 2.3 (i): Type of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson, or activity.

As with the previous two analyses (5.3.2 – I (i) and II (i)), descriptive statistics were used to investigate whether or not occurrence of LA strategies was contingent upon the role of the teacher leading the lesson. As can be seen from Table 5.14 below, types of language assessment were not contingent upon the lesson leading teacher's role; each language assessment strategy was observed when CT and LT led the lessons or activities. Therefore, we do not reject the $H_0$2.3 (i).

Table 5.14: LA strategies by teacher role

			LA strategy					
			TSI	TQ	TF	LPA	LSA	Total
Teacher leading the lesson	LT	Count	62	98	146	18	16	340
		% within Teacher's role	18.2%	28.8%	42.9%	5.3%	4.7%	100.0%
	CT	Count	62	137	93	69	22	383
		% within Teacher's role	16.2%	35.8%	24.3%	18.0%	5.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	124	235	239	87	38	723
		% within Teacher's role	17.2%	32.5%	33.1%	12.0%	5.3%	100.0%

(ii) On the assumption that there will be no difference in the frequency of language assessment strategies during lessons led by teachers with different roles, i.e. CT and LT, the Research Hypothesis $H_0$2.3 (ii) is as follows:

$H_0$2.3 (ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson, or activity.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 2.3 (ii): Frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson, or activity.

Similar to the previous analyses (5.3.2 – I (ii) and II (ii)), chi-squared tests of significance were performed to investigate whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship between the independent categories (CT and LT) of a single dependant, categorical variable (each language assessment type). Again, each language assessment type was analysed individually, as presented below.

The difference between teacher supportive input and the teacher role was not found to be significant, as shown in Table 5.15 below ($df = 1, p > 0.05$). Lessons led by CT and LT generated equal amount of supportive input.

Table 5.15: Teacher supportive input by teacher role

	Teacher's role
Chi-Square [a]	.000
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	1.000

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 62.0.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
LT	62	62.0	.0
CT	62	62.0	.0
Total	124		

Chi-squared = .000, $d.f.$ = 1, $p > 0.05$

Table 5.16: Learner self-assessment by teacher role

	Teacher's role
Chi-Square [a]	.947
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.330

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 19.0.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
LT	16	19.0	-3.0
CT	22	19.0	3.0
Total	38		

Chi-squared = .947, $d.f.$ = 1, $p > 0.05$

Similar findings are observed when learner self-assessment by the teacher role are analysed. The findings reveal no statistically significant difference between learner self-assessment and the teacher role, as presented in Table 5.16 above (df = 1, $p >$ 0.05). With both CT and LT led lessons learners' used self-assessment equally frequently.

Tables 5.17 to 5.19 below investigated teacher questioning, teacher feedback and learner peer-assessment respectively by the teacher role. The results show that, unlike the findings presented above, the frequency of language assessment types was affected by the teacher leading the lesson (df = 1, $p < 0.05$). In CT led classes there was a greater frequency observed in teacher questioning and learner peer-assessment (Tables 5.17 and 5.19 respectively), whereas in LT led classes greater frequency of teacher feedback was observed (Table 5.18).

Table 5.17: Teacher questioning by teacher role

	Teacher's role
Chi-Square [a]	6.472
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.011

[a] 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 117.5.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
LT	98	117.5	-19.5
CT	137	117.5	19.5
Total	235		

Chi-squared = 6.472, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

Table 5.18: Teacher feedback by teacher role

	Teacher's role
Chi-Square [a]	11.753
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.001

[a] 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 119.5.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
LT	146	119 5	26.5
CT	93	119.5	-26.5
Total	239		

Chi-squared = 11.753, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

Table 5.19: Learner peer-assessment by teacher role

	Teacher's role
Chi-Square [a]	29.897
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 43 5.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
LT	18	43.5	-25 5
CT	69	43.5	25.5
Total	87		

Chi-squared = 29.897, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

In summary, the frequency of teacher questioning and feedback, as well as learner peer-assessment was found to vary according to which teacher led the lesson (CT or LT). Whereas the frequency of teacher supportive input and learner self-assessment did not depend upon which teacher led the lesson. Therefore, in the first three cases we reject the $H_0$2.3 (ii) and accept the $H_1$2.3 (ii); and in the fourth and fifth cases we do not reject the $H_0$2.3 (ii).

5.3.3 Impact from language assessment

In this section, the analysis is focused on the third research question, namely:

RQ3: What is the impact of language assessment on learners' linguistic development?

Impact from all language assessment strategies except for teacher supportive input, was determined with reference to learner uptake following strategy use. As with the previous analyses, each language assessment strategy is examined individually. Impact is defined here as:

- Positive – if, alongside 'other' uptake moves, significantly more successful than unsuccessful learner uptake moves were produced following the assessment strategy;
- Negative – if, alongside 'other' uptake moves, significantly more unsuccessful than successful learner uptake moves were produced following the assessment strategy;
- No clear impact – if, alongside 'other' uptake moves, language assessment resulted in no instances of successful and unsuccessful uptake moves.

With regard to teacher supportive input, it is presumed in this thesis that this assessment strategy may have positive impact on learners' linguistic development. The presumption is made on the basis of interview data with one of the CTs. The teacher said that when she provided learners with supportive input, they could benefit from her input (6.3.1). Classroom observation data provides further support to the teacher's words. Table 5.20 below shows that teachers used supportive input explicitly more often than implicitly (in 68% and 32% of cases, respectively), therefore learners indeed could notice the teachers' linguistic instruction and, possibly, benefit from it.

Table 5.20: Type of teacher supportive input

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	explicit	85	68.5	68.5	68.5
	implicit	39	31.5	31.5	100.0
Total		124	100.0	100.0	

It will be recalled (4.9.3) that teacher questioning can develop in two directions: (1) it stops when no gap in learners' linguistic knowledge is identified (questioning – no problem); or (2) it develops into the questioning sequence, when the linguistic problem is identified (questioning – problem). Table 5.21 below investigated the

distribution of teacher questioning for these two cases. We observe that teacher questioning resulted in the identification of a gap in learners' linguistic knowledge in 35% of all teacher questioning cases.

Table 5.21: Teacher questioning: identifying gap

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	TQ - no problem	153	65.1	65.1	65.1
	TQ - problem	82	34.9	34.9	100.0
	Total	235	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.22 further illustrates that out of all teacher questioning cases that resulted in identification of the gap in learners' knowledge: (1) 94% were addressed by the teachers (FLQ – problem – addressed), and (2) 6% were not addressed (FLQ – problem – not addressed).

Table 5.22: Teacher questioning: addressing gap

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	TQ - problem - addressed	77	93.9	93.9	93.9
	TQ - problem - not addressed	5	6.1	6.1	100.0
	Total	82	100.0	100.0	

Finally, Table 5.23 below reveals that out of all cases when teacher questioning resulted in identification of linguistic problem which was then addressed by the teacher: (1) 56% of cases led to 'successful' learner uptake, and (2) 44% of cases led to 'other' (i.e. not clear, off target, no uptake) learner uptake (4.9.2).

Table 5.23: Teacher questioning: outcome

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	successful uptake	43	55.8	55.8	55.8
	other uptake	34	44.2	44.2	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

It also observed that no instances of unsuccessful learner uptake were identified for this category.

Since in the data collected there were no examples of unsuccessful, but only examples of successful and 'other' learner uptake moves following teacher questioning, we conclude that teacher questioning had a positive impact on learners' linguistic development.

With regard to teacher feedback it will be recalled (4.9.4) that teacher feedback, similarly to their questioning, can develop in two directions, namely (1) when learner's linguistic query or error is addressed by the teacher (feedback - addressed); or (2) when learner's linguistic query or error is not addressed by the teacher (feedback – not addressed). The results presented in Table 5.24 indicate that in half of all cases when learners indicated through their utterances the need for linguistic assistance, teachers did not provide this (in 51% of cases).

Table 5.24: Teacher feedback: addressing gap

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	TF - addressed	239	49.4	49.4	49.4
	TF - not addressed	245	50.6	50.6	100.0
	Total	484	100.0	100.0	

However, when the teachers provided support to their learners, the following picture emerged:

- Learner uptake was successful in 29% of cases;
- Learner uptake was unsuccessful in 5% of cases;
- Learner uptake was classified as 'other' in 66% of cases, as shown in Table 5.25 below.

Table 5.25: Teacher feedback: outcome

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	successful uptake	69	28.9	28 9	28 9
	unsuccessful uptake	13	5.4	5.4	34.3
	other uptake	157	65.7	65.7	100 0
	Total	239	100 0	100 0	

The Chi-squared test of significance was then used to investigate whether the difference between successful and unsuccessful learner uptake moves as a result of teacher feedback was significant. The findings indicate that significantly more cases of successful than unsuccessful learner uptake moves were observed in the examined classes ($df = 1, p < 0.05$), as presented in Table 5.26 below.

Table 5.26: Teacher feedback by uptake

	Uptake
Chi-Square [a]	78.408
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 62 5

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
successful	112	62 5	49 5
unsuccessful	13	62 5	-49 5
Total	125		

Chi-squared = 78.408, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

As significantly more instances of successful than unsuccessful learner uptake following teacher feedback were identified in the data, we conclude that teacher feedback had positive impact on learners' linguistic development.

Regarding learner peer-assessment it will be recalled (4.9.5) that this language assessment strategy, as well as teacher questioning and feedback, can develop in two directions, however these directions are different. Specifically, (1) learners can address their peers' linguistic problems accurately (peer-assessment – accurate); or (2) learners can address their peers' linguistic problems but not accurately (peer-assessment – not accurate).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	LPA - accurate	76	87.4	87.4	87.4
	LPA - not accurate	11	12.6	12 6	100 0
	Total	87	100 0	100 0	

We observe from Table 5.27 above that learner peer-assessment was accurate in 87% of cases.

Next, Table 5.28 analyses distribution of learner uptake among accurate peer-assessment cases in order to reveal what impact peer-assessment had on learners' language development.

Table 5.28: Learner peer-assessment: outcome

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	successful uptake	50	65 8	65 8	65 8
	unsuccessful uptake	2	2 6	2 6	68 4
	other uptake	24	31 6	31 6	100 0
	Total	76	100 0	100 0	

From that table we note that in 66% of cases learners' uptake was successful, in 3% of cases it was unsuccessful, and in 32% of cases it was 'other'.

As with the previous analysis, chi-squared test was performed to investigate the level of significance between successful and unsuccessful learner uptake following learner peer-assessment (Table 5.29).

Table 5.29: Learner peer-assessment by uptake

	Uptake
Chi-Square [a]	44.308
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a 0 cells (0%) have expected frequencies less than
b The minimum expected cell frequency is 26 0

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
successful uptake	50	26 0	24 0
unsuccessful uptake	2	26 0	-24 0
Total	52		

Chi-squared = 44.308, $d.f.$ = 1, $p < 0.05$

The findings show that successful uptake was observed significantly more often than unsuccessful uptake ($df = 1, p < 0.05$).

Similar to teacher questioning and feedback, learner peer-assessment had positive impact on learners' linguistic development, as significantly more successful, than unsuccessful learner uptake moves following learner peer-assessment were observed in the data.

In the next set of tables, the impact from learner self-assessment on learners' linguistic development is analysed. Descriptive statistics were used to investigate the distribution of learner uptake within this language assessment strategy.

Table 5.30: Learner self-assessment: outcome

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	successful	35	92.1	92.1	92.1
	unsuccessful	3	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	38	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.30 above shows that in 92% of cases learner uptake was successful and in 8% of cases it was unsuccessful.

Further, Table 5.31 investigated learner self-assessment by learner uptake. It indicates that significantly more successful than unsuccessful uptake moves were observed as result of this LA strategy ($df = 1, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.31: Learner self-assessment by uptake

	Uptake
Chi-Square [a]	26.947
df	1
Asymp. Sig	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than
b. The minimum expected cell frequency is 19.0

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
successful	35	19.0	16.0
unsuccessful	3	19.0	-16.0
Total	38		

Chi-squared = 26.947, $d.f.$ = 1, $p < 0.05$

As with the previous analyses, the present analysis suggests that learners' self-assessment had a positive impact on their linguistic development, as more instances of successful than unsuccessful uptake moves following this strategy were observed.

Summarising the findings for RQ3:

- Four language assessment strategies - teacher questioning, teacher feedback, learner peer-assessment and learner self-assessment - were found to have positive impact on learners' linguistic development. However,
- teacher supportive input was only hypothesised to have positive impact on learners' language learning.

5.3.4 Variables influencing effectiveness and the extent of effectiveness of LA strategies

Having analysed type, frequency and impact of language assessment strategies by subject lesson, lesson phase and teacher role, I now turn to analysing effectiveness and extent of effectiveness of these strategies by the above variables.

I Subject area

(i) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during different subjects areas (i.e. literacy, numeracy and science) will not lead to their differential effectiveness during these subjects, the Research Hypothesis Ho4.1 (i) is as follows:

Ho4.1 (i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject area of the lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (Ha) 4.1 (i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the subject area of the lesson.

Descriptive statistics were used to investigate whether or not effectiveness (measured by successful uptake) of language assessment strategies was contingent upon the subject lesson.

Table 5.32 below analyses 'successful uptake' category of four language assessment strategies, namely teacher questioning, teacher feedback, learner peer-assessment and learner self-assessment, by subject area.

Table 5.32: Successful LA by subject matter

			LA: successful uptake				
			TQ	TF	LPA	LSA	Total
Subject	Literacy	Count	22	15	20	7	64
		% within Subject	34.4%	23.4%	31.3%	10.9%	100.0%
	Numeracy	Count	6	16	6	8	36
		% within Subject	16.7%	44.4%	16.7%	22.2%	100.0%
	Science	Count	15	38	24	20	97
		% within Subject	15.5%	39.2%	24.7%	20.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	43	69	50	35	197
		% within Subject	21.8%	35.0%	25.4%	17.8%	100.0%

We observe that the effectiveness of language assessment strategies was not contingent upon subject areas. Each strategy led to successful uptake in all subject lessons. Therefore, we do not reject the H_o4.1 (i).

(ii) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during different subjects area will lead to differential extent of their effectiveness, the Research Hypothesis H_o2.1 (ii) is as follows:

H_o4.1 (ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the subject lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 4.1 (ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the subject lesson.

Chi-squared tests for independence were used to investigate whether there was a statistically significant relationship at the level of $p < 0.05$ between:

- the two dependent variables of 'uptake' category (i.e. 'successful uptake' and 'other uptake', which combines 'unsuccessful' and 'other uptake')

- across the three independent variables of the 'subject' category (the variables are 'literacy', 'numeracy' and 'science').

The analyses are presented in Tables 5.33 to 5.36 below.

Table 5.33: Teacher questioning: uptake by subject matter

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.504[a]	2	.286
Likelihood Ratio	2.577	2	.276
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.414	1	.234
N of Valid Cases	77		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.53.

Chi-squared = 2.504, $d.f. = 2$, $p > 0.05$

			TQ uptake		
			successful uptake	other uptake	Total
Subject	Literacy	Count	22	23	45
		% within Subject	48.9%	51.1%	100.0%
	Numeracy	Count	6	2	8
		% within Subject	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	Science	Count	15	9	24
		% within Subject	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%

Table 5.34: Teacher feedback: uptake by subject matter

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.831[a]	2	.243
Likelihood Ratio	2.889	2	.236
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.252	1	.263
N of Valid Cases	239		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.96.

Chi-squared = 2.831, $d.f. = 2$, $p > 0.05$

			TF uptake		
			successful	other uptake	Total
Subject	Literacy	Count	15	54	69
		% within Subject	21.7%	78.3%	100.0%
	Numeracy	Count	16	29	45
		% within Subject	35.6%	64.4%	100.0%
	Science	Count	38	87	125
		% within Subject	30.4%	69.6%	100.0%

Table 5.35: Learner peer-assessment: uptake by subject matter

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.003[a]	2	.050
Likelihood Ratio	6.367	2	.041
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.045	1	.025
N of Valid Cases	76		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.76.

Chi-squared = 6.003, $d.f. = 2$, $p > 0.05$

			LPA: uptake		
			successful uptake	other uptake	Total
Subject	Literacy	Count	20	16	36
		% within Subject	55.6%	44.4%	100.0%
	Numeracy	Count	6	5	11
		% within Subject	54.5%	45.5%	100.0%
	Science	Count	24	5	29
		% within Subject	82.8%	17.2%	100.0%

Table 5.36: Learner self-assessment: uptake by subject matter

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.963[a]	2	.138
Likelihood Ratio	4.954	2	.084
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.097	1	.148
N of Valid Cases	38		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .63.

Chi-squared = 3.963, $d.f. = 2$, $p > 0.05$

			LSA: uptake		
			successful	unsuccessful	Total
Subject	Literacy	Count	7	1	8
		% within Subject	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
	Numeracy	Count	8	2	10
		% within Subject	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	Science	Count	20	0	20
		% within Subject	100.0%	.0%	100.0%

Tables 5.33 – 5.36 illustrate that in no case was the difference between type of uptake by subject area found to be significant ($df = 2$, $p > 0.05$). This suggests that the extent of effectiveness of teacher questioning, teacher feedback, learner peer-assessment and learner self-assessment did not depend on the subject lesson. Therefore, we do not reject the $H_0$4.1 (ii).

II Lesson phase

(i) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during different lesson phases (i.e. group work and plenary sessions) will not lead to differential extent of their effectiveness, the Research Hypothesis H_o4.2 (i) is as follows:

H_o4.2 (i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the phase of the lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 4.2 (i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the phase of the lesson.

Table 5.37 below reveals that distribution of successful uptake across language assessment strategies did not depend upon lesson phase. Examples of successful uptake were observed in both group work and plenary sessions. Therefore, we do not reject the H_o4.2 (i).

Table 5.37: Successful LA by lesson phase

			LA Strategy: successful uptake				
			TQ	TF	LPA	LSA	Total
Lesson phase	Group work	Count	10	45	44	25	124
		% within Lesson phase	8.1%	36.3%	35.5%	20.2%	100%
	Plenary session	Count	33	24	6	10	73
		% within Lesson phase	45.2%	32.9%	8.2%	13.7%	100%

(ii) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during different lesson phases will lead to differential extent of their effectiveness, the Research Hypothesis H_o4.2 (ii) is expressed as follows:

H_o4.2 (ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon the lesson phase.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 4.2 (ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon the lesson phase.

Tables 5.38 to 5.40 below analyse type of uptake by lesson phase for teacher questioning, learner peer-assessment and learner self-assessment, respectively.

Table 5.38: Teacher questioning: uptake by lesson phase

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.792[b]	1	.373		
Continuity Correction [a]	.400	1	.527		
Likelihood Ratio	.789	1	.375		
Fisher's Exact Test				.444	.263
Linear-by-Linear Association	.782	1	.377		
N of Valid Cases	77				

[a] Computed only for a 2x2 table

[b] 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9 27.

Chi-squared = .792, $d.f. = 1, p > 0.05$

			TQ: uptake		
			successful uptake	other uptake	Total
Lesson phase	Group work	Count	10	11	21
		% within Lesson phase	47.6%	52 4%	100 0%
	Plenary session	Count	33	23	56
		% within Lesson phase	58.9%	41.1%	100 0%

Table 5.39: Learner peer-assessment: uptake by lesson phase

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (2-sided)	Exact Sig (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.578[b]	1	.209		
Continuity Correction [a]	.855	1	.355		
Likelihood Ratio	1.514	1	.219		
Fisher's Exact Test				.319	.177
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.558	1	.212		
N of Valid Cases	76				

[a] Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 1 cells (25 0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4 11.

Chi-squared = 1.578, $d.f. = 1, p > 0.05$

			LPA: uptake		
			successful uptake	other uptake	Total
Lesson phase	Group work	Count	44	20	64
		% within Lesson phase	68 8%	31.3%	100 0%
	Plenary session	Count	6	6	12
		% within Lesson phase	50.0%	50 0%	100 0%

Table 5.40: Learner self-assessment: uptake by lesson phase

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.163[b]	1	.281		
Continuity Correction [a]	.156	1	.692		
Likelihood Ratio	1.923	1	.166		
Fisher's Exact Test				.552	.388
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.133	1	.287		
N of Valid Cases	38				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50 0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .79.

Chi-squared = 1.163, $d.f. = 1, p > 0.05$

			LSA: uptake		
			successful	unsuccessful	Total
Lesson phase	Group work	Count	25	3	28
		% within Lesson phase	89.3%	10.7%	100.0%
	Plenary session	Count	10	0	10
		% within Lesson phase	100.0%	.0%	100.0%

The findings reveal that no statistically significant difference was found between the type of uptake and the lesson phase for these language assessment strategies ($df = 1, p > 0.05$); examples of successful uptake were observed equally often during both group work and plenary sessions.

However, Tables 5.41 below, that investigated type of uptake by lesson phase for teacher feedback, show that the extent of the effectiveness of this assessment strategy was affected by the lesson phase ($df = 1, p < 0.05$). More examples of successful uptake for this strategy were observed during group work (in 38% of cases) than plenary sessions (in 20% of cases).

Table 5.41: Teacher feedback: uptake by lesson phase

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.740[b]	1	.003		
Continuity Correction [a]	7.917	1	.005		
Likelihood Ratio	8.848	1	.003		
Fisher's Exact Test				.004	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.704	1	.003		
N of Valid Cases	239				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 34 36.

Chi-squared = 8.740, $d.f. = 1$, $p < 0.05$

			TF: uptake		
			successful	other uptake	Total
Lesson phase	Group work	Count	45	75	120
		% within Lesson phase	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%
	Plenary session	Count	24	95	119
		% within Lesson phase	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%

In summary, Tables 5.38 – 5.41 showed that:

- extent of effectiveness of teacher questioning, learner peer- and self-assessment did not depend upon the lesson phase,
- whereas the extent of effectiveness of teacher feedback did depend upon the lesson phase. Therefore, in the first three cases we do not reject the H_o4.2 (ii); and in the fourth case we reject the H_o4.2 (ii) and accept the $H_1$4.2 (ii).

III Teacher's role

(i) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during lessons led by CT and LT will not lead to their differential effectiveness, the Research Hypothesis H_o4.3 (i) is as follows:

H_o4.3 (i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson (1.3).

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 4.3 (i): Effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson.

From Table 5.42 below we note that distribution of successful uptake across language assessment strategies did not depend upon whether CT or LT led the lessons; examples of successful uptake were observed for each strategy. Therefore, we do not reject the $H_0$4.3 (i).

Table 5.42: Successful LA by teacher role

			LA strategy: successful uptake				
			TQ	TF	LPA	LSA	Total
Teacher leading the lesson	LT	Count	28	52	5	16	101
		% within Teacher's role	27.7%	51.5%	5.0%	15.8%	100.0%
	CT	Count	15	17	45	19	96
		% within Teacher's role	15.6%	17.7%	46.9%	19.8%	100.0%

(ii) On the assumption that using language assessment strategies during lessons led by CT and LT will not lead to differential extent of their effectiveness, the Research Hypothesis $H_0$2.3 (ii) is as follows:

$H_0$4.3 (ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners does not depend upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) 4.3 (ii): Extent of effectiveness of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depends upon whether CT or LT leads the lesson.

Tables 5.43 and 5.44 below analyse type of uptake by teacher role for teacher questioning and learner self-assessment.

Table 5.43: Teacher questioning: uptake by teacher role

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.001[b]	1	.970		
Continuity Correction [a]	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.001	1	.970		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.579
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.970		
N of Valid Cases	77				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11 92.

Chi-squared = .001, $d.f. = 1, p > 0.05$

			TQ: uptake		
			successful uptake	other uptake	Total
Teacher leading the lesson	LT	Count	28	22	50
		% within Teacher's role	56.0%	44 0%	100 0%
	CT	Count	15	12	27
		% within Teacher's role	55.6%	44 4%	100 0%

Table 5.44: Learners self-assessment: uptake by teacher role

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.369[b]	1	.124		
Continuity Correction [a]	.865	1	.352		
Likelihood Ratio	3.465	1	.063		
Fisher's Exact Test				.249	.183
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.306	1	.129		
N of Valid Cases	38				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1 26.

Chi-squared = 2.369, $d.f. = 1, p > 0.05$

			LSA: uptake		
			successful	unsuccessful	Total
Teacher leading the lesson	LT	Count	16	,0	16
		% within Teacher's role	100.0%	.0%	100 0%
	CT	Count	19	3	22
		% within Teacher's role	86.4%	13 6%	100.0%

We observe from the tables that the difference between type of uptake and the teacher role was not found to be significant for either of the strategies ($df = 1, p > 0.05$). A

similar proportion of successful uptake examples was recorded for teacher questioning and learner self-assessment regardless of which teacher led the lessons.

However, Tables 5.45 to 5.46 below, which investigated type of uptake by the teacher role for teacher feedback and learner peer-assessment, reveal that extent of effectiveness of these strategies was affected by the teacher's role ($df = 1, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.45: Teacher feedback: uptake by teacher role

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.315[b]	1	.004		
Continuity Correction [a]	7.492	1	.006		
Likelihood Ratio	8.664	1	.003		
Fisher's Exact Test				.005	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.280	1	.004		
N of Valid Cases	239				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26 85.

Chi-squared = 8.315, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

			TF: uptake		
			successful	other uptake	Total
Teacher leading the lesson	LT	Count	52	94	146
		% within Teacher's role	35.6%	64.4%	100 0%
	CT	Count	17	76	93
		% within Teacher's role	18.3%	81.7%	100 0%

The table shows that proportionally more examples of successful uptake following teacher feedback were observed when LT (in 36% of cases) rather than CT (in 18% of cases) led the lessons (Table 5.45).

Table 5.46: Learner peer-assessment: uptake by teacher role

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.747[b]	1	.003		
Continuity Correction [a]	7.042	1	.008		
Likelihood Ratio	8.349	1	.004		
Fisher's Exact Test				.005	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.632	1	.003		
N of Valid Cases	76				

[a] Computed only for a 2x2 table

[b] 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.13.

Chi-squared = 8.315, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

			LPA: uptake		
			successful uptake	other uptake	Total
Teacher leading the lesson	LT	Count	5	10	15
		% within Teacher's role	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	CT	Count	45	16	61
		% within Teacher's role	73.8%	26.2%	100.0%

Further, proportionally more examples of successful uptake following learner peer-assessment were observed when CT (in 74% of cases) rather than LT (in 33% of cases) led the lessons (Table 5.46).

In summary, the findings presented in Tables 5.43 to 5.46 revealed that:

- the extent of effectiveness of teacher questioning and learner self-assessment did not depend upon whether CT or LT led the lessons, whereas
- the extent of effectiveness of teacher feedback and learner peer-assessment did vary according to the teacher leading the lesson, CT or LT. Therefore, in the first two cases we do not reject the $H_0$4.3 (ii); and in the last two cases we reject the $H_0$4.3 (ii) and accept the $H_1$4.3 (ii).

Having presented the findings from the quantitative analyses of my data set with specific reference to the language assessment framework set out in 4.8, I turn next to an analysis of the teacher and learner interview data.

5.4 Qualitative data analyses

It will be recalled from 4.7 that semi-structured interviews were conducted with 3 teachers and 4 learners to develop insights into their views on language assessment. In analysing the interview data, I imposed a predetermined set of categories:

- teacher views on: teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment; and
- learner views on: teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment.

The teachers' and learners' comments were placed according to their content under these categories. In this section I first analyse the teacher interview data in 5.4.1, followed by the analysis of the learner interview data in 5.4.2.

5.4.1 Teacher views on assessment

In this sub-section I analyse the assessment strategies that teachers reported using (or observing their learners using) in the classrooms in order to reveal if these strategies may carry formative potential for both the teachers and the learners.

It will be recalled from 3.2 that assessment, or feedback as part of assessment, may be seen as formative if it assists and promotes learning, or informs and supports teaching.

When going through a child's written work LT suggested that marking learner's work with the child at the side of the teacher might support his or her learning better than marking the learner's work without the child. LT stated:

Comment 5.1: LT (15 June 2006; lines 186-192)

> "it would be so much better if you could mark children's work with them at your side [...] that's why people often in a lesson will try mark as they going along [...] because the children benefit far more from you being able to explain verbally what is wrong, if you just write down they do not look at it"

In this comment the teacher seems to be emphasising the importance of not simply pointing out the mistake to the learner by marking his/her work, which may be seen as summative perspective on assessment. But also commenting on the learner's work, explaining what exactly is wrong with it by means of "descriptive" as opposed to "evaluative" feedback which, according to Tunstall and Gipps (1996), may support

and promote learning, hence may be seen as formative for the learners. Moreover, LT in comment 5.1 also mentioned importance of the *verbal* feedback for supporting learning as it, in this teacher's opinion, may be more likely to reach the learner as opposed to the written feedback that a learner may not read, or if read, understand (Sadler, 1989) at all. This LT's point may be well explained by the extract presented below where the teacher commented on the procedure of providing verbal feedback to the learner sitting at her side while marking his work.

Comment 5.2: LT (15 June 2006; lines 292-296)

> "...when he read his work to me he stopped but there was no full stop there... And I said to him hang on... why? let me read this sentence... and I read it without stopping and I said: you took a breath I didn't... Oh oh I need a comma or a full stop there... so which one is it going to be? you know, sometimes they can then realise it"

The extract shows that the teacher's verbal feedback provided as part of teacher-learner eliciting interaction, where arguably teacher's intonation and pauses had a role to play, allowed the learner noticing the gap in his knowledge and addressing it. Should the feedback been provided in a written form, the learner might have not read or understood it as an opportunity for real-time interaction and the scaffolding might have been lost. Interestingly, however, the learners reported benefitting from the teachers' written comments as presented further in 5.4.2.

Having presented the teacher's views on feedback given as part of the learners' written work assessment, I now turn to analysing teachers' comments in relation to the feedback strategies they reported using when assessing learners' oral performances.

When discussing the assessment strategies used as part of everyday teaching, LT reported:

Comment 5.3: LT (15 June 2006; lines 166-184)

> "I'd rather let them work out the problem themselves by giving them more clues giving them more help... they can, I should say, should try and get there on their own, I think it is far better because if you just tell them something they switch off... and they won't remember it, whereas if they had to think about it and work it out for themselves they are far more likely to explain it..."

It may be seen from this extract that similarly to the feedback provided on learners' written work, LT seemed to be preferring eliciting feedback strategies (like, giving clues) which allowed "initiating interaction" and providing "opportunities for learners to express their understandings" (Black and Wiliam, 1998b) to support learners' oral performances. The teacher justified her preference by a conviction that learners may be not as likely to remember or explain what was taught to them when they are given immediate but not eliciting feedback, as they may not even try to understand it ("they switch off"). A similar view on this issue was expressed by CT1 when she commented on teaching and assessment processes in her class. CT1 stated:

Comment 5.4: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 173)

> "they will write them [answers] down but they won't remember them".

It becomes evidenced from the extract that even though the teacher admitted that learners might use her feedback, her view was that it might neither support or promote their learning.

When CT2 commented on her classroom assessment and teaching practices, her views seemed to coincide with the views of the other two teachers, as presented in Comment 5.5 below.

Comment 5.5: CT2 (12 June 2006; line 66)

> "...when they are given homework they are given an opportunity to talk and express ideas that's their chance of working themselves rather then me saying: well this is it, that is what we are doing and this is the concept.... it is all about questioning and prompting them you know... what is this what is that... trying to get the answers out of them so that you know they are taking part and they are learning as well"

Even though this teacher commented on using eliciting feedback strategies in relation to the learners' homework only, it seems that in her class learners were also provided with one more opportunity that potentially could have a formative impact on their learning, an opportunity for exploratory learning in a non-threatening environment.

Moreover, in her other comment CT2 also mentioned the importance of using information, obtained from teaching and assessment, for informing her own teaching (Hall and Burke, 2003). Comment 5.6 below illustrates the teacher's reported practice.

Comment 5.6: CT2 (12 June 2006; line 68)

> "Ultimately I am meant to support them ...any misconceptions they have... you know... if they have any misconceptions, that's when I think it is my role to say... make it clear that there is a misconception and this is a, you know, correct way"

This extract provides evidence of the teacher reporting not only recognising the gap in her learners' knowledge and addressing it, it also shows the teacher's efforts in making it clear to the learners where their problem was and what needed to be done to overcome it.

Finally, CT1 when giving her views on feedback stated that:

Comment 5.7: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 171)

> "I would prefer to go back to the learner... again depends on time... just depends on time... because I suppose... I think it is important because I do not want them automatically to ask me every everything that they do not know every word that they do not know I want them actually start to think if they'd come across something they do not know or the word they do not know that they begin to say you know well what word would make sense or what word do I know that sounds a bit like that you know so that they can actually begin to make the connections themselves when they discover something new.... make links between their previous learning and you know what's going on in future, to make these sort of links really... but I mean you know if I questioned them a little bit and I think they are not going in a right direction then I'll tell them but I think it is important to let them start think about things first"

This episode seems to suggest that the teacher would address learners' needs and give them feedback whenever possible (time preference issues involved). However, Comment 5.7 also seems to provide evidence of CT1 "encouraging learners to self-monitor their work" (Rea-Dickins, 2003) and providing them with skills and strategies for taking the next steps in their learning (Assessment reform group, 1999). It is suggested in the LTA literature that these two approaches to assessment may support and promote learning therefore I believe that in CT1's classroom they might also have had formative potential for the learners. The last sentence in this episode seems to reinforce CT2's comment about adjusting teaching to meet learners' needs (Comment 5.6). CT1 reported changing her eliciting teaching (learner questioning) to direct teaching (telling explicitly) once it became apparent to her that the chosen strategy might not work particularly well for the learners.

In summary, the teacher interview data suggests that teachers' use of feedback as part of assessment and teaching might have formative potential for both the teachers and the learners. The following potentially formative strategies were reported to be used by the teachers:

- using descriptive feedback;
- using eliciting feedback;
- addressing and explaining gaps in the learners' knowledge;
- using information for modifying teaching activities;
- training learners in self-monitoring;
- providing learners with the skills and strategies for taking next steps in their learning;
- making corrections in the ways that make sense to the learners;
- providing opportunities for interaction and exploratory learning;
- integrating assessment into teaching and learning.

I now turn to analysing the teacher interview data in relation to their views on learner peer-assessment.

In the present study the teachers were asked whether any of their learners provided feedback for their peers, that is did they have any evidence of children engaged in peer-assessment and if they did then how useful did they think it was for their learners.

The three teachers interviewed reported observing learner peer-assessment in their classes. CT1 and CT2 observed that it was particularly useful when used by the learners in mixed attainment groups. The teachers commented:

Comment 5.8: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 91)

> "I think they do... I think they benefit quite a lot... I've always found it useful I mean when they work in mixed attainment groups... and... if they are always working in their attainment groups the children who are struggling they are not always getting the right way to do it or the best way to do it and they are not always getting that... they are not always getting the richness of language or the deeper understanding I think"

Comment 5.9: CT2 (12 June 2006; lines 34-38)

> "Of course they can [peer-assess]... Definitely [they do] you might have noticed... the reason for the team groups is very evident in the fact that there are those children who are more able, certainly children with English as their first language, and they are there to help children who have English as their second language... to actually help them understand and actually support them as well as myself supporting them... I have I clearly observed it... I definitely think that it is children supporting each other and they are grouped in such a way so that they've got other children on their table that can actually help"

The extracts demonstrate that the CTs' initiative in setting up situations where learners could help each other seemed, from their perspectives, to be quite successful - learners were reported helping each other and benefitting from such help, particularly when higher achieving learners helped lower achieving learners.

In LT's opinion, however, peer-assessment was particularly helpful when children worked in similar ability groups, the teacher commented:

Comment 5.10: LT (15 June 2006 lines: 264-268)

> "I think it is great particularly in a guided reading groups... there you've got a group of similar ability readers and you have a book you are all studying, and each child will read out on their own and if they are struggling on a word the other children or another child who can read the word will say it for them"

It may probably be inferred from the last three comments (Comments 5.8 to 5.10) that learners may benefit from both: working in similar ability and mixed ability groups by "providing help to each other" (Harlen and Winter, 2004).

Furthermore, LT also commented on her beliefs about the effectiveness of peer-assessment when compared to simple teacher correction, showing preference for the peer-assessment as a strategy that may potentially support and promote learning better. The language teacher stated:

Comment 5.11: LT (15 June 2006; lines: 300-302)

> "how much of it [peer-assessment] they will remember I do not know but probably if it's then discussed with the peer, you know, look I think you should have done that because... they'll remember that far more than the teacher just correcting it"

Summarising the teachers' views on learner peer-assessment in their classes, it may be suggested that similar to the teacher feedback strategies, learner peer-assessment, be it within the same or mixed ability groups, seemed to be carrying a potential to be formative for the learners.

Having analysed the teacher interview data in relation to learner peer-assessment I now turn to analysing teacher interview data in relation to learner self-assessment.

In this study, the teachers were asked to comment on whether and how learner self-assessment was used in their classes. When CT1's commented on learner self-assessment in her class, she stated:

Comment 5.12: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 103)

> "I think some children are quite good at it I think that is important that they do start to look at their work and begin to check it... there might be hundreds of errors in there... they probably won't pick up everything... but what I am trying to do at the moment particularly with their writing is to just give them something quite small to focus on... I think it is important that they have successes as well as [failures]"

This extract suggests that CT1 probably found learner self-assessment helpful in supporting and promoting independent learning since she reported working towards promoting its use in her class by setting the learners specific achievable goals and making these goals explicit to them. Harlen and Winter (2004: 404) suggest that "knowing the criteria for assessing their work may be essential for involving learners in assessing their own work". That is exactly what CT1 seemed to be doing in her class.

When LT commented on learner self-assessment in her classes, she mentioned that:

Comment 5.13: LT (15 June 2006; 272-276)

> "They will always make miss some [errors] always no matter how... and in years to come I am not going to be there they got to be able to pick these errors out themselves... I think you know [we need] to encourage them to self-correct"

In this extract LT seems to be highlighting the importance of making it clear to the learners that at the end of the day they themselves are going to be responsible for their

own learning. She also mentions encouraging the learners to self-assess. This point, namely that learners needed encouragement to self-correct, seems to be reinforcing the research finding which shown that learner self-assessment was the least frequently used assessment strategy in the examined classes. The point of similarity between LT's and CT1's comments (Comments 5.12 and 5.13) seems to be that they both reported perceiving training learners in self-assessment as important, and working towards developing learners' self-assessment skills to promote their independent learning. Viewing self-assessment from this perspective – that it may promote learning – may suggest that it is used formatively in the classrooms.

In this sub-section I analysed the teacher interview data and revealed that the assessment strategies reported used or observed by the teachers seemed to have formative potential for both the teachers and their learners.

5.4.2 Learner views on assessment

In this sub-section I develop insights into the learner views on assessment processes used in their classrooms. I begin with analysing the learner views on teacher feedback, then learner peer- and self-assessment.

To investigate the learner views on teacher feedback four learners were asked to comment on whether their teachers were helping them with learning during the lessons and, if so, how. The learners' commented on written and verbal teacher assistance. In relation to the verbal teacher feedback the learners stated:

Comment 5.14: P4 (15 June 2006; line 100)

"[I would prefer the teacher] to ask me more questions [because] if she just tells me the answer straightaway I will not know... how to work it out"

Comment 5.15: P2 (14 June 2006; line 176)

"you can learn through them [questions]"

Comment 5.16: P3 (14 June 2006; lines 106,110)

"I will answer myself ... because I want to learn more"

These three learner comments seem to be quite homogeneous in terms of learners' views on verbal teacher assistance. The learners reported preferring interactive feedback in the form of a dialog, with the teacher eliciting answers from the learners rather than immediately telling them, a point of similarity with Yoshida (2008) (2.5.2). Rea-Dickins (2003: 92) suggests that eliciting responses from the learners, that is eliciting learner "uptake", "may contribute to whether feedback is effective in promoting processes of teaching and learning". Based on Rea-Dickins' (2003) view, I suggest that the verbal teacher feedback strategies as reported used by the learners may possibly be seen as potentially formative for them.

In her interview, L4 also commented on the teacher verbal feedback from a slightly different perspective from that presented above. She said:

Comment 5.17: P4 (15 June 2006; lines 48-50)

> "helpful [meaning the teacher's comments]... because when I do not know, she would make it like clear so I would know and what's what makes it helpful"

As seen from this extract, this time the learner speaks not about the teacher feedback provided by means of eliciting questions but about the teacher feedback provided by means of detailed and clear explanations. These clear explanations seem to be helping the learner understand the problem and possibly progress through learning. Therefore, I suggest that this comment provides further evidence to that teacher verbal feedback may be used formatively in the classrooms.

Having analysed the learners' comments on the verbal teacher feedback, I now turn to analysing P1's comments in relation to the written teacher feedback, as this was the only learner who commented on this type of feedback. P1 stated:

Comment 5.18: P1 (13 June 2006; lines 138,140,142)

> "they [teachers] help me to do stuff ... concentrate on it then do it [right] next time ... [I will] pay attention to them [comments]... read all my comments then I can improve more"

From this comment, it appears that this learner reads the teacher's written feedback in contrast to the teacher's belief expressed in 5.4.1 that learners may not read the written comments at all. Moreover, the learner also reported benefitting from such teacher feedback. This may suggest that the teacher written comments could have had formative effect on the learner's learning as they seemed to be making sense and helping him make changes in the context of his own work.

I now turn to analysing the learner interview data in relation to the learner views on peer-assessment.

To analyse learners' views on peer-assessment, they were asked to comment on whether they help their peers with work and if so how. One of the learners interviewed on this question, reported:

Comment 5.19: P4 (15 June 2006; lines 18,140,144)

> "I'd like to correct other people's work in case they are wrong because they would help me to correct my... I first like tell them like first I ask them questions and then giving them clues and then they would like come up with the answer... but sometimes like when I corrected the person like they would see their mistake and next time they would write it right"

It may be observed from this extract that the learner reported helping her peers because they might also help her should she need assistance with her learning. Later in the extract the learner also mentioned that her peer-help seemed to be beneficial for her peers in that they may "come up with the answer" or "write it right". In this sense learner peer-assessment may possibly be seen as having formative potential for the learners. Moreover, the learner also mentioned using a similar feedback strategy as her teacher, namely eliciting feedback from her peers rather than immediately telling them the right answers. Similarly, another learner also mentioned using the same strategy in her interview. She said:

Comment 5.20: P3 (14 June 2006; line 20)

> "yeah ... like tell them what to do but not tell them the answers"

Interestingly, I did not observe many situations when learners did elicit answers from their peers, mostly they seemed to be correcting their peers work immediately by telling them where and how to correct. The extract below from the interview with the P4, where she commented on how she would help her peer, seems to be supporting my observation:

Comment 5.21: P4 (15 June 2006; lines 146-150)

P4: Like say it like yesterday a girl at my table she was spelling 'WAS' wrong and I corrected it for her and then she just said oh that's how you spelt it and then she had to do another sentence and that word was in it as well and then she spelt it right
I: ok good and when you corrected her how did you correct
P4: Like she put am er 'U' instead of a 'A' and then I told her that you don't put a 'U' because that was spelt WUS and you don't use 'U' like because the teacher would just cross it and just wanting in 'A' because am....
I: Because it's correct spelling right
P4: *Nods*

It is clearly evident from this extract that P4 immediately and explicitly corrected her peer once she spotted the error in her writing rather than eliciting the correct answer from that peer.

When P2 was invited to talk about his peer-assessment experience he did not mention helping his peers because they might help him as well, but he did note that correcting his peers made him "feel like a boss":

Comment 5.22: P2 (14 June 2006; line 18)

"always... because it makes you feel like a boss"

What can be inferred from this extract in addition to the fact that peer-assessing made the learner feel bossy by taking the role of the teacher or examiner of the others, is that he still helped his peers and therefore potentially provided them with opportunities for learning.

When the learners were invited to comment on the situations when they were in a position of being assessed or asking for help, they stated:

Comment 5.23: P1 (13 June 2006; line 10)

> "ask the teacher most of the time because the children may be wrong"

Comment 5.24: P2 (14 June 2006; lines 6-8, 48)

> "the teacher ... because I'll get high mark my mum will know if I ... the teacher marked it .... I'll put my hand up and ask the teacher"

Comment 5.25: P3 (14 June 2006; lines 12, 14, 32)

> "when my teacher helps me... because she explains more than other people... the teacher's advice is much better"

Comment 5.26: P4 (15 June 2006; lines 14, 52)

> "the teacher because then I am sure it is right and can get more help when the teacher corrects my mistake ... if I ask the teacher that would be more like right because the teacher would have known"

An interesting observation emerges from these comments (Comments 5.23 to 5.26). It becomes evident that the learners reported preferring the teacher's assistance to that of their peers as they seemed to trust the teachers' comments and help more. Interestingly, however, the learner interview data also revealed that when learners had no other choice but either accept help from their working partners, or not get it at all, they seemed to be asking for and accepting peer-assistance quite willingly and, moreover, sometimes reported finding it helpful, as exemplified by the comments below:

Comment 5.27: P4 (15 June 2006; line 10, 172)

> "if there is a question I can discuss it with my group to like make sure the right answer and thing like that... like words I have not read [meaning heard] of before and then sometimes they tell me [other pupils]"

Comment 5.28: P3 (14 June 2006; line 8)

> "if I get stuck some people help me to work... yeah [pupils' help is helpful]"

Comment 5.29: P1 (13 June 2006; line 6)

> "I think it [peer-help] helps me"

In summary, the learner interview data on peer-assessment suggests that learners generally seemed not to mind assessing their peers and were not found to express doubts about the quality of their own assessment. Some of the learners reported observing their peers benefitting from their assistance. However, the learners did seem to be expressing doubts about the quality of the assessment and help when they were the one's who were assessed by their peers. This was the case, only when the learners had a choice between choosing whether to be assessed by their peer or by their teacher. Once they did not have such choice, the learners seemed willing to ask for and accept help from their peers and reported finding such help useful for supporting and maybe promoting their learning. Therefore, resting on the learner reports, I conclude that in the examined classes, peer-assessment seemed to be having a formative potential for the learners.

I now turn to analysing the learner interview data in relation to the learner views on self-assessment.

To investigate learners' views on self-assessment they were asked to speak about whether they check their own work after competing it and if so, how they do it and how useful they find it.

When speaking about self-assessment, the P2 commented:

Comment 5.30: P2 (14 June 2006; lines 130.132, 134)

> "yeah [I look through my work]... yeah [I find mistakes] ... cross it out and put write a correct word"

This extract shows that, according to the interviewed child (P2), he did use self-assessment to help him progress through learning (by looking through the work, identifying the problem and addressing it). The data revealed in the next extract taken from the interview with the P4 seems to reveal similar information as disclosed by the P2. P4 stated:

Comment 5.31: P4 (15 June 2006; lines 160, 162, 168)

> "I check it through first ... mostly I do see mistakes ... sometimes I do know how to correct the mistakes ... yeah about literacy.... then I have to read it through a couple of times and then like if there is a word missing I put it in"

Indeed, P4 also comments on using self-assessment for identifying and addressing the gaps in her knowledge. However, in this extract the learner also mentions the fact of not always knowing how to correct the errors once they are identified. This finding may suggest that self-assessment may not necessarily always be formative for the learners, as sometimes they may not know how to deal with their difficulties.

Further, P3 when speaking about her views on learner self-assessment, mentioned:

Comment 5.32: P3 (14 June 2006; lines 82, 86, 88)

> "sometimes... yeah I like checking my own work and other people' work... yeah I know how to correct a mistake... not always, sometimes I need a friend to help me"

This extract is different from the extract presented above (Comment 5.31) in that here P3 comments not only on the fact that sometimes she may not know how to address the gaps in her knowledge identified as the result of self-assessment, but also she comments on the way she might deal with such situations. She reports turning to her friend for assistance, in other words, asking for peer-help. I would argue, that in the way P3 reported using self-assessment (asking for peer-assessment if needed) it may be seen as formative for her since she could learn from it (or from peer-assessment used as a part of self-assessment).

In this section the teacher and learner views on teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment were investigated. In the next section (5.5) I provide a summary of the main findings from the quantitative (5.3) and qualitative (5.4) analyses presented in this chapter.

5.5 Summary

This study sought to investigate the types, frequency of occurrence, effectiveness and extent of effectiveness of the language assessment strategies used by the teachers and the learners in the examined classes. Ten main findings were identified. These are:

- **RQ1 - Type:**
  - Five language assessment strategies were used by the teachers and the learners in the examined classes. These were: teacher supportive input, teacher questioning, teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment (5.3.1);
- **RQ2 - Occurrence:**
  - All these language assessment strategies were used regardless of the subject area of lessons, their phases, or whether the classroom teacher or the language teacher led them (5.3.2);
- **RQ2 – Frequency by subject area:**
  - Teacher supportive input and learner peer-assessment strategies were used more frequently in literacy and science than in numeracy lessons;
  - teacher questioning in literacy than in science and numeracy lessons;
  - teacher feedback and learner self-assessment in science than in literacy and numeracy lessons (5.3.2 - I);
- **RQ2 – Frequency by lesson phase:**
  - Frequency of teacher feedback did not depend on the lesson phase; however
  - significantly more instances of teacher supportive input and teacher questioning were observed in plenary than in group work sessions;
  - significantly more instances of learner peer- and self-assessment in group work than in plenary sessions (5.3.2 - II);
- **RQ2 – Frequency by teacher's role:**
  - Frequency of teacher supportive input and learner self-assessment did not depend upon whether the classroom teacher or the language teacher led the lessons; however,
  - significantly more instances of teacher feedback were observed in lessons led by the language teacher rather than the classroom teacher; and
  - significantly more instances of teacher questioning and learner peer-assessment in lessons led by the class teacher rather than the language teacher (5.3.2 - III);
- **RQ3 - Impact:**
  - Teacher questioning, teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment had positive impact on learners' language learning;
  - teacher supportive input also could have had positive impact on learners' language learning but this was not statistically proven (5.3.3);

- **RQ4 - Effectiveness:**
  - Effectiveness of the language assessment strategies did not depend on the subject area of the lessons, their phases, or whether the class teacher or the language teacher led the lessons (5.3.4);
- **RQ4 – Extent of effectiveness by subject area:**
  - Extent of effectiveness of the language assessment strategies did not depend on the subject areas of the lessons (5.3.4 - I);
- **RQ4 – Extent of effectiveness by lesson phase:**
  - Extent of effectiveness of teacher questioning, learner peer- and self-assessment did not depend on the lesson phase; however
  - significantly more instances of successful teacher feedback were observed in group work than in plenary sessions (5.3.4 - II);
- **RQ4 – Extent of effectiveness by teacher's role:**
  - Extent of effectiveness of teacher questioning and learner self-assessment did not depend on whether the class teacher or the language teacher led the lessons; however
  - significantly more instances of successful teacher feedback were observed when the language teacher rather than the class teacher led the lessons; and
  - significantly more instances of successful learner peer-assessment when the class teacher rather than that language teacher led the lessons (5.3.4 - III).

This study also sought to gather teacher and learner views on the following language assessment strategies: teacher feedback, learner peer- and self-assessment. These data were used to investigate whether these strategies could have a formative potential for both the teachers and the learners. Three main findings were identified. These are:

- **RQ5:** The assessment strategies reported to be used or observed by the teachers and the learners overall seemed to have formative potential for the learners and for the teachers (5.4.1 and 5.4.2);
- Learners were not always able to benefit from self-assessment as sometimes they did not know how to address their learning problems (5.4.2);
- Even though the learners reported benefitting from peer-assessment, they seemed to prefer their teachers' feedback to guide their learning (5.4.2).

In the following chapter I discuss the main findings of the present research.

PART V DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER SIX DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

It will be recalled from 1.2 that the present study had two major aims. These were:

- to investigate the actual educational processes related to language learning in mainstream primary school and to investigate whether these processes correspond to the requirements of official policy documentation in terms of provision of opportunities for language development and support to young learners with EAL (1.4) in different *teaching* and *subject* contexts; and

- to investigate whether in the examined classes the classroom based language assessment was used formatively (3.2) by the teachers and the learners; that is, to investigate whether it was used to support and promote the learners' learning, and to inform and guide the teachers' teaching.

In this chapter, I firstly discuss the findings of my research in relation to the first research aim (6.2), and then in relation to the second research aim (6.3). Then I discuss the findings of the present study in relation to the findings obtained by other researchers working in the areas of second language acquisition (6.4) and language testing and assessment (6.5) research. I conclude this chapter with a brief summary of the main themes addressed in it (6.6).

6.2 Supporting and promoting language development

In this section I relate the observed research outcomes to the requirements of official policy documents on supporting and promoting EAL learners' language development in order to reveal whether examined classroom practices correspond to these requirements or not. I specifically focus on the following themes: general teacher responsibilities (6.2.1); responsibilities by the subject areas (6.2.2); language support in relation to the lesson phases (6.2.3); and language support techniques (6.2.4).

6.2.1 General teacher responsibilities

In the TTA (2000: 47) document it is stated that "developing the English of bilingual students is the responsibility of *all* teachers" (TTA 2000; p.51) and that "*all* teachers need to be prepared to teach or comment explicitly on the language forms, functions and structures". Furthermore, DfES (2004a: 8) reinforces the point highlighted by the TTA (2000) and states that "a*ll* mainstream class and subject teachers have responsibility for developing pupils' competence in English, both written and spoken".

It was observed that in the examined classes both types of teachers, that is, the mainstream class teachers and the language support teacher (1.3), supported learners' language development and provided them with opportunities for language learning (5.3.2 – III (i)). Both teachers were observed using the following strategies to support learners' language learning: provision of supportive input (4.9.1), questioning learners' linguistic knowledge (4.9.3), provision of feedback to learners' linguistic errors and queries (4.9.4). Therefore, it may be suggested that the researched teachers' practices in supporting and promoting the learners' language development correspond to the requirements outlined in the TTA (2000) and the DfES (2004a) documents.

Interestingly, however, it was also observed that the extent to which the class teachers and the language teacher provided learners with the language help and opportunities for language development sometimes seemed to depend on the language support strategy that the teachers used. Thus, it was observed that the language teacher provided linguistic feedback to the learners more often than the class teachers (146 and 93 episodes respectively), whereas the class teachers questioned the learners' linguistic knowledge more often than the language teacher (137 and 98 episodes respectively) (5.3.2 – III (ii)). Both teachers, however, provided learners with supportive linguistic input equally often (62 and 62 episodes respectively) (5.3.2 – III (ii)).

Therefore, I conclude, that even though both teachers did assist the learners with their language learning as requested by the official policy documents, they seemed to prefer different strategies for so doing.

Furthermore, my findings suggest that the language support strategies used by both the class and the language teacher were generally effective in promoting learners' learning (5.3.4 – III (i)).

However, the *extent* of their effectiveness sometimes seemed to depend on which teacher used them. It was observed that the teacher feedback was more effective in leading to successful learner uptake (4.9.2) when the language teacher rather than the class teachers used this strategy (35.6% and 18.3% respectively) (5.3.4 – III (ii)). Interestingly, teacher feedback strategy also seemed to be a preferred LT's strategy as it was observed used by her more often than other support strategies (teacher feedback – 146 episodes, teacher supportive input – 62 and teacher questioning – 98 episodes) (5.3.2 – III (i)).

The extent of effectiveness of the teacher questioning was similar for both teachers (56% and 55.6%) (5.3.4 – III (ii)), even though the class teachers were observed using it more (137 episodes for CTs and 98 for LT) (5.3.2 – III (ii)) and seemed to prefer this strategy to other support strategies (teacher questioning – 137 episodes, teacher feedback – 93 and teacher supportive input – 62 episodes) (5.3.2 – III (i)). Similar to Mackey et al (2004), this finding suggests that the teacher's experience may have a role to play in the effectiveness of the teacher's teaching. Indeed, the language teacher in the present research overall had the most years of teaching experience (4.5.1).

Having discussed the research findings in relation to the teachers' responsibilities, I now turn to discussing the findings in relation to the subject lessons.

6.2.2 Responsibilities by the subject area

It is suggested in the DfEE (1999: 37) document that "teachers should aim to provide the support pupils need to take part in *all subject areas*. Similarly, SCAA, (1996: 2)

requires that "teachers have responsibility for *simultaneous* teaching of both English and *subject content*". In other words, these policy documents suggest that learners should be provided with language support in all lessons and not only in literacy lessons where language is often the main topic.

In the present study I observed that teachers supported learners with their language development throughout the lessons regardless of their subject area (5.3.2 – I (i)). This finding may be seen as evidence that the researched teachers did follow the requirements set in DfEE (1999) and SCAA (1996) documents on supporting learners' language development in all subject areas.

The findings of my research also revealed that even though the learners were provided with language help and opportunities for language development in all core subjects – literacy, numeracy and science – the extent to which they were provided with such help seemed to depend on the subject lesson. Learners were provided with supportive linguistic input more often in literacy and science than in numeracy lessons (58, 43, and 23 episodes respectively) (5.3.2 – I (ii)). They were asked more linguistic questions in literacy than in science and numeracy lessons (163, 51 and 21 episodes respectively) (5.3.2 – I (ii)). They received linguistic feedback from the teachers more frequently in science than in literacy and numeracy lessons (125, 69 and 45 episodes respectively) (5.3.2 – I (ii)). It may be clearly observed from these findings that overall learners seemed to be receiving most of their language help in their literacy lessons and least in numeracy. This finding is similar to the finding of Afitska (2004), where it was found that in literacy lessons learners were provided with more opportunities for language development than in numeracy lessons.

It is also interesting to note that even though the teachers supported learners' language development more in some subject areas that in others, they did it equally effectively regardless of the subject lessons (5.3.4 – I (ii)).

In the next sub-section I discuss the present research findings in relation to the lesson phases.

6.2.3 Language support and lesson phase

Even though no distinct requirements in relation to supporting and promoting learners' linguistic development in various lesson phases were found in the official policy documentation on supporting and promoting EAL learners' language development (1.2), I investigated this issue in the present study. It was thought that since learners may be provided with different opportunities for language development depending on the subject lessons (6.2.2) or the teachers' roles (6.2.1), then maybe this would be the case with the lesson phases.

The findings of my research revealed that the learners were provided with language help and opportunities for language development in both plenary and group work sessions (5.3.2 – II (i)). However, the teachers were observed using some language support strategies more often than others in the different phases. Thus, it was observed that the learners were provided with more supportive input and were questioned on linguistic points more by the teachers in plenary sessions (teacher input occurred 94 times during plenary sessions and 30 times during group work sessions, and teacher questioning occurred 193 times during plenary and 42 times during group work sessions) (5.3.2 – II (ii)). However, it was also found that the extent to which the teachers provided feedback to the learners' errors and queries did not depend on the lesson phase. In other words, the learners received the teacher feedback equally often in both the plenary and the group work sessions (119 and 120 episodes respectively) (5.3.2 – II (ii)). These findings suggest that in the examined classes the learners were provided with more opportunities for language development during the plenary sessions than during group work sessions.

With regard to the effectiveness of the strategies used by the teachers in plenary and group work sessions, it was observed that the teachers' questioning was equally effective in leading to successful learner uptake in both lesson phases (47.6% and 58.9%), (5.3.4 – II (ii)). However, the teacher feedback was found to be more effective in the group work than in plenary sessions (37.5% and 20.2% respectively) (5.3.4 – II (ii)). Therefore, I conclude that the lesson phase may influence the extent of effectiveness of some language support strategies, namely, teacher feedback in the case of this study.

In summary, the findings of the present research revealed in 6.2.1 to 6.2.3, suggest that:

- the teachers fulfilled the requirements set in official policy documentation in relation to supporting and promoting the EAL learners' language development in all subject lessons and by all teachers; and
- the frequency of use and/or the extent of effectiveness of some teacher language support strategies may be influenced by the context in which these strategies are used (such as, the role of the teacher, the subject area or the lesson phase).

It was also found by other researchers (Revesz and Han, 2006; Lyster and Mori, 2006; Mackey et al, 2007) that context[42] may influence the effectiveness of the teaching and learning procedures. It was observed by Mackey et al (2007) that learners who worked in the context where tasks were familiar both in content and procedure showed more use of feedback than learners who did not work in such context. Similarly, it was found by Revesz and Han (2006) that learners who worked in the context where tasks were familiar in content benefitted from teacher recasts more than the learners who worked in the context where tasks were unfamiliar to them. Furthermore, Lyster and Mori (2006) found that learners who worked in the context of the classrooms where the communicative orientation did not favour opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy (French classrooms) found "prompts" effective for supporting language acquisition; whereas learners who worked in the context of the classrooms where the communicative orientation permitted regular opportunities for controlled production practice with an emphasis on accuracy (Japanese classrooms) found "recasts" effective for supporting language learning.

In the next section I discuss the findings of my study in relation to specific language support techniques[43] that are suggested in the official policy documents to support and promote the EAL learners' language learning.

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[42] Any context, not necessarily the same as in the present research

[43] By "techniques" I mean specific actions within the language teaching/assessment strategies that the teachers may use to increase the effectiveness of these strategies. Such as, explicit or implicit feedback, clarifications, explanations, corrections, vocabulary teaching, use of visual clues, etc.

6.2.4 Language support techniques

Having reviewed a number of policy documents on supporting and promoting language development of learners with EAL (1.2), I outlined several language teaching techniques that were suggested for the teachers for supporting and promoting EAL learners' language development. Below, I discuss these techniques in relation to the present research findings.

Firstly, it was suggested in the SCAA (1996: 14) document that "EAL pupils [should] receive *regular and appropriate feedback* on their use of English, including *sensitive, positive corrections*". This point was also reinforced in the OFSTED (2002: 13) document where it was stated that "teachers should provide *appropriate correction of errors*, so that EAL learners could demonstrate competent use of grammar, syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary and idiom". In the classes that I observed the teachers addressed the gaps in the learners' linguistic knowledge and provided learners with linguistic feedback, on average, every four minutes of each lesson (5.3.1). Therefore, I conclude that corrective feedback was a technique that was regularly used by the teachers to support and promote the learners' language learning, as required in the official documents. It is difficult to determine the extent to which teacher feedback was appropriate or corrections were sensitive and positive as it is not stated in the documents what is meant by these concepts. The present research findings showed, however, that the learners benefitted from the teachers' feedback (5.3.3), therefore, possibly, it may be suggested that this teacher feedback was appropriate for the learners.

Secondly, it is stated in the TTA (2000: 47) document that "teachers need to be prepared to *teach or comment explicitly* on the language forms, functions or structures" and "provide *clear explanations*" (OFSTED, 2002: 13) to the learners' queries. Moreover, it is requested in the DfES (2003: 10) document that "teachers make sure that levels of EAL *support are closely tailored to learners' needs*". When speaking about her classroom practices in supporting EAL learners with their language learning, CT1 commented:

Comment 6.1: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 71)

> If it was you know a grammatical error which they make all the time really... I mean I would not pick it up every single time that they say that ... so what I try to do is to pick up what they are, you know, if there, you know, WE WAS WE WAS, you know, they... that's the X sort of expression ... and I try not to [inaudible] cos I think that's important as well but to actually let them know that there is another way that they need to know that that's the way that they need to write so I mean I will pick it up... the other day they did a piece of descriptive writing and a lot of the children were writing I WERE or you know so they were misusing that verb quite a lot so that's something that I will focus on because this is something that we have that I formally taught in the autumn term but it is still not happening in quite a lot of their writing ... and another thing I mean an example as well is the understanding of how verbs are used with plurals and singular I mean that's just you know that has been an ongoing theme

This comment provides evidence for this particular teacher tailoring her teaching and feedback styles to the learners' language learning needs by focusing their attention on the problematic aspects of the language and commenting explicitly on them. This teacher also noted however, that she would not focus the learners' attention on all the gaps they have in their language knowledge, but she would mostly attend to those that seemed to be a common problem. A similar opinion was expressed by LT, who stated:

Comment 6.2: LT (15 June 2006; lines 152-156, 160-164)

> if it's something really glaring that I've heard other children making in the past [that LT will address]... you know it might be might be a tense error that a lot of children are making so then I will pick up on it... one very common error is that rather than using verb to be they say he BE-S, HE BE-S UNHAPPY you know rather than HE IS UNHAPPY and that is I do not know if that's to do with the area or what it is but that is so common so I will always pick up on that

Both extracts (Comments 6.1 and 6.2) suggest that overall the teachers did follow the requirements set out in the policy documents in relation to tailoring their teaching and feedback styles to the learners' learning and explicitly commenting on the gaps in their knowledge. However, the extent to which the teachers "closely" tailored their teaching and feedback styles to the learners' language learning needs may possibly be questioned, since both teachers noted addressing the problems that were common for majority of the learners, but not those that were problematic for the individual learners.

Next, it is also suggested in the official documents that the following techniques are used by the teachers to support the learners' language learning: "*teaching specific vocabulary*" (DfES, 2005b: 7), "*explaining key concepts*" (TDA, 2006b: 9), "*reinforcing the messages*" (TDA, 2006b: 4) that include potentially difficult or new words, "*providing alternative ways of expressing meanings*" (SCAA, 1996: 14), and "*using visual aids*" (DfES, 2005b: 11). I observed that in the present study the teachers did use these techniques to support and promote their learners' linguistic development. They did so mostly as part of the teacher "supportive input" strategy (4.9.1), which on average was used every fifteen minutes of the lesson (5.3.1), or the teacher "feedback" strategy (4.9.4), which on average was used every eight minutes of the lesson (5.3.1). Several examples from the lesson transcripts (see Appendix 6.1) illustrate the teacher's use of the above named techniques.

Example 6.1: (Year 5-CT-Science- 06 June 2006)

55	CT2	the **STAMEN** which is this bit in the middle the most middle part of the flower MAKES A POLLEN ok	*shows stamen on the picture of a flower on the board*

This example shows the teacher teaching specific scientific vocabulary to the learners. She also uses visual aid - interactive whiteboard - to support their learning.

Example 6.2: (Year 5-CT-Science- 06 June 2006)

27	CT2	We all understand that **germination** is when a seed grows into a new plant	

In this example the teacher explains to the learners one more time one of the key concepts in science, namely "germination".

Example 6.3: (Year 5-LT-Science- 05 June 2006)

45	LT	They are **struggle** they are not good and strong they are weak and thin… pale… struggle	*Writes "struggle" on the board*

This example illustrates the teacher reinforcing, rewording and explaining, the meaning of her message that includes a potentially new word for the children, "struggle". The teacher also uses whiteboard as visual aid to help learners get familiar with the new word, read it and spell it.

Example 6.4: (Year 5-CT-Literacy- 08 June 2006)

41 CT2 what **adjectives** or **describing words** would you associate with this head teacher

(Year 5-CT-Numeracy- 05 June 2006)

5 CT2 Excellent... four **times** or **multiplied by** twenty three what's the answer going to be

These two examples show the teachers using alternative ways of expressing the meaning of their instructions. They do so by means of contextual synonyms.

Example 6.5: (Year 5-LT-Literacy- 12 June 2006)

11 LT That's what a walrus is a walrus is a name of this creature that's their breed — *Shows a picture of a walrus drawn on the sheet*

In this last example the teacher uses a visual aid – the picture – to help learners understand the meaning of a new word "walrus". She also explains its meaning verbally.

Fourthly, several official policy documents recommend that "teachers should provide learners with *opportunities to hear good models of English*" (DfES, 2001; DfES, 2005c: 2) by "acting *as role models* of spoken English" (TDA, 2006b: 9). Teachers were also suggested to "*repeat answers* of the EAL learners *in sentences*" (DfES, 2005b: 11). When commenting on her language support practices in the classroom, CT2 stated:

Comment 6.3: CT2 (12 June 2006; line 12)

> when the EAL child is speaking I will try and correct them because I think that it can only be helpful... I will let them talk and explain exactly what they want to but then I will word it in such a way so that I am being a role model and I am role modelling to them I am talking to them in such a way how what I expect of them

In this extract the teacher demonstrates how she applied the language support techniques outlined in the official policy documents to her own teaching. The other two teachers participating in my research were also observed acting as role models of English for their learners (see Appendix 6.1). Therefore, I conclude that the teachers

followed this policy requirement as well as several other requirements discussed earlier.

Finally, it is stated in DFES (2004a: 8) that "teachers should develop their learners' competence in spoken and written English" by providing them with "*opportunities to practice English in supportive environment*" (DFES, 2001). In the present study, the learners were observed being invited by the teachers to work in small groups during practical tasks. Such group work sessions created environment in which the learners could ask for and provide peer-help (5.3.2 and 5.3.4), express their understandings and experiment with the language (Appendix 6.1).

Summarising the themes discussed in this section, I conclude that in the researched classes, mostly, teachers did follow the requirements set in the official policy documents on supporting and promoting the language development of learners with EAL. Specifically, all the teachers at all lessons and lesson phases provided support to the learners and used wide range of language support techniques to assist their language teaching. It was observed that on average the researched teachers focused on form (that is, attended to language, 2.2) once every 3.15 minutes (5.3.1). This is almost as frequently as was observed by Ellis et al (2001a) - once every 3.26 minutes; less frequently than was observed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) - once every 1.6 minutes; and much more frequently than was observed by Davies (2006) - once every 10.75 minutes. Further discussion of the teacher classroom practices on supporting and promoting language learning with specific reference to other research studies is presented in 6.4.

In the next section I discuss the present research findings in relation to the second research aim - investigating whether the language assessment strategies in the researched classes had formative potential for the teachers and the learners.

6.3 Assessing language development formatively

It will be recalled from 3.2 that classroom based assessment may be seen as formative for teachers and learners if it assists learners with language development and informs teachers' teaching so that next steps for "improved" teaching can be

planned. In this section I discuss the findings of my research in relation to this matter. I begin with a discussion of the teacher assessment practices (6.3.1) and then discuss the learner assessment practices in 6.3.2.

6.3.1 Teacher assessment

In this sub-section I firstly discuss teacher assessment strategies in relation to whether they had formative potential for the learners. Following this, I discuss the teacher assessment strategies in relation to whether they had formative potential for the teachers themselves.

I observed in my study that both teacher assessment strategies, that is teacher questioning and feedback, led to successful learner uptake (5.3.3). The rates of successful learner uptake were 100% for teacher questioning and 85% for teacher feedback[44]. This finding may imply that indeed the teachers' classroom based assessment had formative potential for the learners since the learners could benefit, that is, learn from it. Similarly to McDonough (2005) and Loewen (2005), I see learner uptake as a possible indicator of successful language acquisition. Furthermore, when commenting on the feedback strategies they used, the teachers reported finding them helpful for supporting learners' learning (5.4.1).

However, my research also showed that in 6% of teacher questioning the linguistic gaps in learners' knowledge remained unaddressed by the teachers, therefore opportunities for these assessment interactions to become formative for the learners were lost. Moreover, the study also revealed that in 51% of cases when the learners showed need for linguistic help (5.3.3) this was not provided to them even though the teachers seemed to be aware of the learners' problems. Here again, the opportunities for formative use of language assessment seemed to be neglected by the teachers.

The teachers were also observed providing learners with supportive linguistic input (5.3.3) when they presumed that learners might have difficulties with understanding

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[44] The "other uptake" episodes were excluded from the analysis (5.3.3). When included, the rates of successful uptake following the teacher questioning comprise 56% (with 0% of unsuccessful learner uptake) and the rates of successful uptake following the teacher feedback comprise 29% (with 5% of unsuccessful learner uptake).

language or could benefit from, say, new vocabulary or a different way of expressing meanings in English. I see the process of such teacher decision making as assessment. In the present study I could not measure the extent to which teacher supportive input could possibly assist learners' language learning by means of learner uptake as this teacher assessment strategy did not mean to lead to immediate learner uptake. However, CT1, when commenting on how she marked the learners' work, noted:

Comment 6.4: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 115)

> Sometimes it is a word that I might have introduced to them in the shared reading or you know we've been talking or discussing something and they liked the word and they want to use it but you know they do not know how it is spelt I am trying to think of one ... dilapidated... or something like that you know (laughing) and some children like say Px will straight away remember that word and want to use it straight away in their writing and if they've used that word and it is very close to how it should be or you know I can understand which word they mean then I probably won't correct it

This extract provides evidence showing that this learner could benefit from the teacher's supportive linguistic input in that he would remember the new word and use it in his writing. When the teacher supportive input is used in this way, I believe, that it may be seen as having formative potential for the learners.

I now turn to discussing the findings in relation to the teacher assessment strategies being used formatively for the teachers themselves.

When the language and the class teachers were invited to talk about classroom assessment and their use of the assessment outcomes, they stated:

Comment 6.5: LT (15 June 2006; lines 56, 66, 68, 110, 114)

> I do make notes of particular problems that I've observed so that they can then be included in planning future lessons... I also write down samples of language that the children use which again go on to their records... and I've got bits of paper all over at home that will when I do the language development records [and] we can see the mistakes they are making I pick up on the language needs which I then share with a class teacher and put forward suggestions

Comment 6.6: CT1 (15 June 2006; line 43)

> What I'll do when problems like that (English language learning related problems) arise try to actually plan them into the teaching.... I may not do it in the next lesson I may do it in the next unit of work... and it might be something that I mean in the case say literacy it might be something that actually is not part of the year 4 you know curriculum for literacy but it might be part of the year 3 which they still haven't grasped and so you know I will go over that

It is evidenced from both comments (Comments 6.5 and 6.6) that the teachers made formative use of their assessment outcomes. They used the information collected about the learners' linguistic knowledge to inform the next stages in teaching. This teachers' practice reflects on the requirements of official policy documents on effective assessment of learners' with EAL. Specifically, it is stated in one of these documents that "assessment for learning can be used formatively and *should feedback into classroom planning,* teaching and learning" (DfES, 2003: 2).

In her interview, the other class teacher also commented on her use of classroom based assessment and its outcomes. She stated:

Comment 6.7: CT2 (12 June 2006; line 62)

> ...I will overhear while I walk around the classroom generally and I will stop at them and actually say well what is it you are doing do you understand and then from that I can you know I can think... well it is informal assessment rather than more formal assessment you know and I can find out well actually yes this child with EAL they do understand concept or they clearly do not and that's you know I can find out from there well actually how can I help them to help them understand it more em but definitely it is combination of both and that's the best way it works because sometimes you might [inaudible] intentions have a lesson planned but it may not go according to plan you might think that actually and this has happened several times where the children have not been at the level that I wanted them for the lesson so I had to go beyond I had to take step backwards and think right how are we going to get to this step

This teacher's comment suggests that unlike other two teachers (CT1 and LT) who spoke about using the assessment data to inform the *next stages* in their teaching (forthcoming lessons), this teacher was referring to use of the assessment data to inform her *immediate* teaching (teaching within the same lesson). The importance of using the assessment data to "*immediately inform* planning and teaching" is also highlighted in the DfES (2003: 13) document.

Having discussed the teachers' use of the language assessment strategies and their outcomes, I now turn to discussing the learners' use of the classroom based language assessment.

6.3.2 Learner assessment

In this study the learners were observed assessing their peers' and their own linguistic development by means of peer- and self-assessment (3.2.2). In 96% of learner peer-assessment and in 92% of leaner self-assessment learner uptake was successful[45] (5.3.3). Resting on these findings, I suggest that in the researched classes, learner initiated language assessment, similar to teacher initiated language assessment (6.3.1), could have had formative potential for the learners since they were observed benefitting from such assessment. Moreover, the learners reported that they and their peers could indeed support their own and each others' language learning through self- and peer-assessment (5.4.2).

Furthermore, it is stated in the DfES (2005: 22) document on effective assessment of learners with EAL, that teachers should "*ensure opportunities for* learner *self-assessment* and *peer-assessment* as part of feedback". Indeed, the observed high rates of successful learner uptake following learner self- and peer-assessment (92% and 96% respectively) suggest that allowing for learner driven assessment in the classrooms may considerably support the learners' learning. However, even though in the researched classes the teachers did provide learners with opportunities to self- and peer assess, the learners were observed doing so on average as infrequently as once every 52 minutes (i.e. once in each lesson) when self-assessing, and once every 18 minutes (i.e. three times in each lesson) when peer-assessing (5.3.1).

Summarising the themes discussed in this section, I conclude that the teachers' and learners' classroom based language assessment practices did have formative potential for the teachers and the learners. They were used to support and promote the learners' language learning and to inform immediate and gradual teachers' planning

[45] The "other uptake" episodes were excluded from the analysis (5.3.3). When included, the rates of successful uptake following the learner peer-assessment comprise 66% (with 3% of unsuccessful learner uptake) and the rates of successful uptake following learner self-assessment remain the same 92%, as learner self-assessment never resulted in "other uptake" moves.

and teaching, as suggested in the policy documents on effective assessment of learners with EAL (DfES 2003 and 2005). The findings of the present research on classroom based language assessment, with specific reference to the findings of other studies on formative assessment, are further discussed in 6.5.

6.4 Contribution of the findings to SLA research

In this section I discuss the findings of my study in relation to the finding of other researchers who work in the area of SLA research. I specifically focus on following themes: impact on language learning (6.4.1), use in the classrooms (6.4.2), effectiveness (6.4.3), research on teachers and learners (6.4.4) and uptake (6.4.5).

6.4.1 Impact on language learning

Considerable research has been done on investigating whether focus on form[46] may lead to second, additional or foreign language acquisition. Findings from Lightbown and Spada (1990), Long (1996), Doughty and Varela (1998), Harley (1998), Muranoi (2000), Ellis (2002), Mennim (2003), Iwashita (2003), Lyster (2004), Loewen (2005), McDonough (2005) and Bouffard and Sarkar (2008) revealed that focus on form may have positive effects on learners' linguistic development and therefore may possibly contribute to the process of their second language acquisition (2.5.1 – I and 2.5.2 - I). Findings from the present study also provide evidence that both teacher and learner initiated "focus on form" could lead to improvements in learners' linguistic performance (5.3.3).

6.4.2 Use in the classrooms

Although research suggests that focus on form may be beneficial for promoting language acquisition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) warned that focus on form, when used in communicative classrooms, may potentially break the flow of the lessons and communication (2.5.1 - II). Other researchers however (Seedhouse, 1997; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Ellis et al, 2001a and 2001b, Sheen, 2004) seemed not to be observing such practices and reported that in their examined contexts focusing on

[46] In this section I consider research on corrective feedback as part of research on focus on form

form did not result in unduly interfering with meaning focused classroom activities (2.5.1 – II and 2.5.2 - II).

In the present study, I asked three teachers (4.5.1) to comment on their language teaching on whether they thought that their focusing on from might have influenced the flow of their lessons. CT2 commented:

Comment 6.8: CT2 (12 June 2006; lines 48, 54)

> of course it does [focusing on language interrupts the flow of the lessons] but then I think at the end of the day if it does not interrupt I would I think it would not be acceptable for me to teach a lesson and that is it... I have to be able to sort of to give a part of me to the children and say well look this is what it is....Of course it is going to disrupt lessons but the thing is I think it is part of learning and I think you have to be confident in learning these basic concepts and if you are not ... I think it is very difficult then... and I think that children will struggle if they did not have that

Clearly, this extract suggests that the teacher's focusing on language did interfere with her lessons' flow. However, the teacher also noted that without focusing on language and explaining core concepts explicitly, lessons could not have been taught effectively.

When CT1 was asked to speak on the same topic, she generally seemed to agree with CT2, but also stated that overtime learners may need less support with specific linguistic issues as they may start feeling more and more confident in using them independently. This teacher reported:

Comment 6.9: CT1 (15 June 2006; lines 125, 133)

> probably... it probably does (focusing on language interrupts flow of the lessons)... [but] you can't do without it... it is essential... you can... I mean you can eventually like I said when it comes to the point where you can cut it down because they've got into... because they've had enough of those models if you like so that they need you know less support

The LT's comments, however, seem to conflict with the comments of the other two teachers. This teacher commented:

Comment 6.10: LT (15 June 2006; lines 346, 348)

> No no I do not think it does because it's just part of the the actual way you teach ... you emphasise it...

According to the LT, focusing on language during the lessons did not interrupt their flow as in the EAL context it is actually how teachers teach. However, the LT also noted that she would try not to focus on language too much during whole class sessions as this indeed might break their communicative flow of the lessons. The teacher stated:

Comment 6.11: LT (15 June 2006; lines 148, 150)

> I will pick up on far more [during group/individual work] than when they are working as a whole class...you know if they are on the carpet em... because it would just distract the whole the whole teaching part

The LT also noted that she would often "position [herself] by a particular child and try to encourage him/her to think more" about language and they even could have "little whispers" about linguistic issues.

To conclude, the findings of my study, when related to the class teachers' use of focus on form, corroborate with the finding of Lyster and Ranta (1997). However, when the LT's views on the use of focus on from are concerned the findings mostly seem to concur with the findings of Seedhouse (1997), Doughty and Varela (1998), Ellis et al (2001) and Sheen (2004).

6.4.3 Effectiveness: explicit versus implicit feedback

Many research studies have examined whether explicit or implicit focus on form may have greater effects on language learning. The findings appeared to be quite diverse. Spada (1997) suggested that both explicit and implicit "focus on from" may be needed to support and promote language learning. Nassaji and Swain (2000), Lyster (2004) and Loewen (2004) recommended using implicit eliciting "focus on from" to facilitate language acquisition. Ellis (2002) and Fuente (2006) seemed to support explicit "focus on from" strategies. Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004) and Macaro and

Masterman (2006) appeared to question effectiveness of explicit focus on form suggesting that it may not always be as effective as it is often believed to be (2.5.1 – III and 2.5.2 - III).

The findings from my research revealed that the teachers' *implicit* reactive focus on form resulted in successful learner uptake more frequently than the teachers' *explicit* reactive focus on from. In as many as 42% of teacher implicit focus on from episodes and in only 24% of teacher explicit focus on form episodes the learner uptake was found to be successful ($df = 1$, $p < 0.05$; Appendix 6.2). This finding seems to corroborate with the findings of Lyster (2004) and Loewen (2004) presented above.

It will be recalled from 2.3 that implicit feedback as part of focus on form occurs when the teachers use clarification requests, elicitations and recasts. In my study I did not differentiate between different types of implicit feedback but included all of them under one heading - 'implicit' feedback. Therefore, the limitation of the finding presented above may be seen in that it does not reveal which type of implicit feedback might have influenced the results most. A detailed qualitative and statistical analysis of data may be needed to reveal clearly the role each type of implicit feedback might have played in eliciting immediate successful learner uptake (7.3.1).

6.4.4 Research on learners and teachers

It was suggested by Mackey (2006), Mennim (2007) and Hanaoka (2007) that the learners' ability to notice gaps in their linguistic knowledge may help them improve their L2 proficiency (2.5.1 - IV). Indeed, in my study I observed that when learners identified gaps in their knowledge through self-assessing, they could address them successfully in 92% cases (5.3.3). Therefore, my finding seems to coincide with the findings of the researchers mentioned above.

With regard to research on teachers, I mentioned in 6.2.1 that it seemed that the teachers' experience had a role to play in the way they used focus on form to support and promote their learners' language learning. I found that the LT responded to the learners requests for language help more often than the other two teachers and that her feedback was more effective in provoking successful learner uptake (5.3.2 – III

(ii) and 5.3.4 – III (ii)). Therefore, Mackey et al's (2004) finding, that suggested that the teachers' use of focus on form may be affected by their teaching experience, seems to be reinforced by my results.

6.4.5 Uptake

Several researchers who examined learner uptake in the language classrooms reported observing generally high rates of learner uptake following the teacher feedback (Mackey et al, 2000; Ellis et al, 2001a; Oliver, 2000), with the rates of successful learner uptake being high as well (Ellis et al, 2001a). However, other researchers reported observing generally low rates of learner uptake, with the rates of successful learner uptake being low too (Panova and Lyster, 2002) (2.5.3 - II).

Nabei and Swain (2002) suggested a variable that might have influenced the amount and effectiveness of learner uptake in the language learning classrooms, that is that when counting the rates of uptake and successful uptake, only those episodes should be included when it was appropriate and relevant for the learners to make uptake moves and when opportunities for uptake were provided, for example, when learners were given enough time to reply.

In the present research I took into consideration the Nabei and Swain's (ibid) suggestion and coded the learner responses following the teacher feedback according to the three categories: successful, unsuccessful and other learner uptake (4.9.2). The "other" learner uptake category specifically accounted for the cases noted by Nabei and Swain (2002) and for the situations when it was not clear whether uptake was successful or not (4.9.2). The results of my study have shown that, similar to Mackey et al (2000), Ellis et al (2001a) and Oliver (2000), the rates of *learner uptake* were quite high in the researched classes (Appendix 6.3). In 40% of cases the learners were observed producing uptake[47] moves. In the case of Mackey et al's (2000) study, for example, the learner uptake occurred in 52% of all episodes. The rates of *successful* learner uptake in the present study (once the "other" uptake episodes were excluded from the analysis) were very high. In 90% of the episodes resulting in learner uptake, uptake was found to be successful (Appendix 6.4).

[47] Only successful (35.4%) and unsuccessful (4.1%) learner uptake episodes are counted here

In this section, I compared the findings from my research with the findings of other researchers who carried out studies on focus on form, corrective feedback and uptake. In the next section I discuss my findings in relation to the findings of other researchers who conducted their studies in the area of language testing and assessment.

6.5 Contribution of the findings to LTA research

In this section I specifically focus on the following themes: impact of assessment on learning (6.5.1), use in the classrooms (6.5.2), teacher feedback (6.5.3), and self- and peer-assessment in comparison to teacher assessment (6.5.4).

6.5.1 Impact on learning

Findings from the present study seem to corroborate the findings of other researchers[48] who observed that formative assessment may have a positive impact on learners' linguistic, or other cognitive, development and therefore potentially may promote learning (3.3.1). It was observed in the present study that both the teacher and the learner initiated assessment had a positive effect on learners' linguistic development[49] (5.3.3).

6.5.2 Use in the classrooms: attitudes

Similar to Hasselgren (2000), Torrance and Pryor (2001), McDonald and Boud (2003), Carless (2005) and Pinter (2007) my study suggests that the researched teachers overall had positive attitudes to the classroom based - both teacher and learner initiated - assessment. They reported using such assessment themselves as well as observing their learners' using it, and finding it useful for supporting and promoting learners' learning (5.4.1). Moreover, the teachers also highlighted

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[48] Fontana and Fernandes, 1994; Black and Wiliam, 1998, Rea-Dickins, 2001; McDonald and Boud, 2003; Wiliam et al, 2004; Ross, 2005; Carless, 2005; Pinter, 2007; Storch, 2007; McGarrel and Verbeem, 2007

[49] Positive effect was measured by means of successful learner uptake following teacher or other learner's treating turns (4.9.2)

promoting learner self-assessment in their classes by encouraging pupils to self-assess and by training them in using this assessment strategy (5.4.1).

However, several other studies on "formative assessment" revealed that learners were found not always feeling positive about classroom based assessment and learner peer-assessment in particular. In some studies learners doubted their ability to fairly and responsibly assess their peers (Cheng and Warren, 2005), in others they interpreted peer-assessment as criticism (Morris and Tarone, 2003).

- In my study, I observed that, overall, learners seemed to have positive attitudes to teacher assessment as well as peer- and self-assessment (5.4.2). However, they also reported preferring the teacher feedback to that of their peers when they had choice as to who will assist them. The learners reasoned their choice by their belief that the teacher "knows better" (5.4.2). This finding seems to be different from both the Cheng and Warren's (2005) and the Morris and Tarone's (2003) findings. In my research the learners neither seemed to doubt their own ability to fairly assess their peers (contrariwise, they reported liking assessing their peers (5.4.2)), nor they reported interpreting their peers' feedback as criticism. It seems to be just the matter of them trusting their teachers more. In relation to such issues, Storch (2007: 156) comments that "learners concerns about learning the "wrong grammar" from their peers should be allayed" since "in most instances learners [can] reach grammatically correct decisions when working with peers".

6.5.3 Teacher feedback

It was reported by Black and Wiliam (1998b) and reinforced by Cheng and Wang (2007) that in classrooms, the giving of marks and the grading functions are often over-emphasised while the giving of useful advice and the learning functions are under-emphasised (3.3.4). In the present study, however, I observed that the teachers preferred to comment on their learners' performance to help them progress through learning, rather than judging their performance by means of grades. It was also believed by the researched teachers that learners could particularly benefit from the verbal comments as opposed to the written comments which they might not read at all (5.4.1). However, P1, who was one of the interviewed children, noted that he

would read the teacher's comments, understand them and benefit from them (5.4.2). This finding seems to contradict the Carless' (2007: 175) claim that "much written feedback which occurs after a task is completed is relatively ineffective because it does not provide much motivation or opportunity for a student to act upon the feedback".

The fact that P1 reported benefitting from the teachers' written comments and other children reported benefitting from the verbal teacher comments may suggest that the quality of the teachers' comments were good in that they allowed supporting and maybe promoting the learners' learning. Similarly, Butler (1988), reported by Black and Wiliam (1998b), also observed that learners could benefit from the teachers' comments more than they could from the grades. However, Smith and Gorard (2005) noted that in their study learners had difficulties understanding the teachers' comments therefore they could hardly benefit from them. Tying all the findings together, I conclude that it is probably not the comments per se that can make feedback work for the learners, but it is rather the quality of the comments as well as the way they are provided, that is, how and when the comments are presented, to the learners that might make them become useful to the learners. But, of course, this hypothesis would need to be researched.

6.5.4 Self- and peer-assessment compared to teacher assessment

Several studies have investigated the quality of learner initiated assessments in comparison to the teacher assessment. Some of these studies found that learners could assess themselves (Hasselgren, 2000) and their peers (Patri, 2002) in a manner similar to their teachers (3.3.3). Others, however, revealed that learners' assessment resulted in judgements different to those of the teachers (Patri, 2002 in relation to self-assessment; Cheng and Warren, 2005 in relation to peer-assessment). In my research, I did not compare the quality of the learner assessment to that of the teachers, but I suppose that since the teachers reported training their 8-10 year old learners in self-assessment and providing them with opportunities for group work where the learners could peer-assess (5.4.1), they probably believed that learners of this age group were mature enough to assess their peers and themselves in a way similar to that of the teachers, that is, in a way that could support and maybe promote

their learning. Pinter (2007: 203) also highlighted that "peer-peer interactions of 10 year old learners could offer multiple [learning] benefits to them".

In this section I have discussed the findings of my study in relation to the findings of other researchers who work in the area of language, or other, assessment.

6.6 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the findings of my research in relation to its aims (6.2 and 6.3) and the findings obtained by other researchers who conducted their studies in the areas of second language acquisition (6.4) and language testing and assessment research (6.5). In the next chapter I summarise my study, present its strengths, limitations and implications for the further research.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction and structure of the chapter

In this chapter a summary of the study and its main findings is presented (7.2), followed by a discussion of its strengths and limitations in 7.3. In 7.4 implications for research, policy and school practice are suggested, followed by the concluding remarks in 7.5.

7.2 Summary of the study and its findings

In this research study I sought to investigate how the mainstream primary school teachers support and promote linguistic development of the learners who learn English as an additional language[50] (1.2).

I approached this task from two perspectives. Firstly, I looked at the classroom language teaching and learning practices from the perspective of the second language acquisition researcher, aiming to reveal whether these practices correspond to the requirements set in the official policy documents on effective teaching of learners with EAL (Chapter 2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2 and 5.3.4).

Secondly, I looked at the classroom language assessment practices from the perspective of the language assessment researcher aiming to investigate whether the observed classroom practices provided learners with opportunities for language development. In other words, I examined the classroom based language assessment processes in order to reveal whether they had formative potential for the teachers and the learners (Chapter 3, 5.3.3 and 5.4).

These two research aims gave rise to the five research questions, as follows:

[50] Both the language teaching and classroom embedded language assessment processes were considered in my research

- **Research Question 1:** Which language assessment strategies, if any, do teachers and learners use in immersion classrooms to support and promote learners' linguistic development?

- **Research Question 2:** What does the type and frequency of language assessment strategies used by the teachers and learners depend on?

- **Research Question 3:** What is the impact of language assessment on learners' linguistic development?

- **Research Question 4:** What does the effectiveness (measured by successful uptake) of language assessment depend on?

- **Research Question 5:** What are the teachers' and the learners' views on various language assessment strategies in immersion classrooms?

The first, second and fourth research questions generated data needed to address the first aim of my study, the third and fifth research questions – the second aim.

The research procedures used for this study were as follows. Firstly, I analysed the policy documentation on effective language teaching and assessment (1.2) of learners with EAL, and reviewed the relevant research on second language acquisition (Chapter 2) and language assessment (Chapter 3). Secondly, I developed and piloted the research instruments (4.6) and collected the data by means of classroom observations (4.7.1) and interviews (4.7.2). Finally, I performed qualitative (5.3) and quantitative (5.4) data analyses to get answers to the above research questions (see also 4.3). Below I briefly summarised the main findings of my study in relation to the research aims.

With regard to the requirements set in the official policy documentation on effective teaching of learners with EAL, it was found that:

- Firstly, the examined EAL learners were supported with their language development in all core primary subject areas (that is, literacy, numeracy and science), as requested in the policy documents (1.2). Overall, the learners were found receiving most support in literacy lessons and least support in numeracy lessons (5.3.2 – I (i)), with the effectiveness of support not being affected (5.3.4 – I (i)).

- Secondly, both the class teachers and the language teacher were observed supporting learners and developing their L2 competence, thus fulfilling the requirement set in the policy documents where it is stated that providing support to EAL learners is the responsibility of all teachers (1.2). Interestingly, it was observed that the language teacher provided linguistic feedback to the learners more often than the class teachers and that is was more effective in leading to successful learner uptake than the feedback provided by the class teachers (5.3.2 – III (i) and 5.3.4 – III (ii)). The class teachers, however, were observed questioning the learners' linguistic knowledge more often than the language teacher, but the effectiveness of teacher questioning was similar for both the class and the language teachers (5.3.2 – III (i) and 5.3.4 – III (ii)). It is suggested in this thesis that the teacher's experience probably has a role to play in observed outcomes (6.2.1); the language teacher had most years of teaching experience of the three teachers participating in my study (4.5.1).

- Thirdly, it was also found in my study that learners were supported with their linguistic development not only in different subject lessons but also throughout the different lesson phases, namely plenary and group work sessions (5.3.2 – II (i)). Specifically, it was found that even though the teachers assisted learners with their language learning in both lesson phases, they were observed doing so more often in plenary than in group work sessions (5.3.2 – II (ii)). Interestingly, however, it was found that the teacher feedback was more effective in leading to successful learner uptake during group work than plenary sessions (5.3.4 – II (ii)).

- Finally, as recommended in the policy documents (1.2), the teachers were observed using various language teaching techniques to support and promote their learners' linguistic development. Specifically, the teachers were observed providing regular feedback to the learners, teaching and commenting explicitly on the problematic aspects of the language, tailoring the level of support to the learners' needs, teaching specific vocabulary, explaining key concepts, providing alternative ways of expressing meanings, using visual aids, providing learners with the opportunities to hear good models of English as well as opportunities to practice English in supportive environment (6.2.4).

Having summarised the research findings, I conclude that the observed classroom practices on language teaching overall corresponded to the requirements set in the official policy documents on effective teaching of learners with EAL (1.2).

With regard to the formative use of the classroom embedded language assessment strategies, I found that:

- Firstly, the teachers did assess their learners' linguistic development in a way that can be seen as potentially formative for the learners since learners could benefit from such assessment. Specifically, it was found that when the teachers assessed the learners' linguistic development by questioning their linguistic knowledge, the learners produced successful uptake in 100% of such interactions[51]. Similarly, it was found that when the teachers addressed the gaps identified in the learners' linguistic knowledge, the learner successful uptake appeared in 85% of such episodes (5.3.3).

- However, in 6% of the episodes when the teachers questioned the learners' linguistic knowledge and identified gaps in their knowledge, nothing seemed to be done by the teachers to address these gaps (5.3.3). Furthermore, in 51% of the episodes when the learners demonstrated need for linguistic assistance, the teachers seemed not to be responding to it. These findings suggest that the

[51] Episodes resulting in "other learner uptake" are excluded from the analysis (6.4.5). When included, the rates of successful uptake for teacher questioning were 55.8% and for teacher feedback – 28.9% (5.3.3)

teacher language assessment in these two cases did not carry formative potential for the learners.

- Secondly, the teachers reported using outcomes of their language assessment to inform their immediate language teaching and to plan the next stages in the future lessons (6.3.1).

- Thirdly, the learners as well as the teachers were observed using classroom based assessment strategies to support their own and their peers' language learning (5.3.3). It was found that in 96% of learner peer-assessment and in 92% of leaner self-assessment, learner uptake was successful[52]. This finding suggests that learners' language assessment had formative potential for the learners since they could benefit, and maybe learn, from it.

- Finally, the teachers reported training the learners in self-assessment and providing them with opportunities for peer-assessment (5.4.1). However, the learners self-assessed and peer-assessed on average as infrequently as three and one time(s) in each lesson respectively (5.3.1). Moreover, some learners reported occasionally being unable to benefit from self-assessment as they did not know how to address the linguistic gaps identified (5.4.2). The learners also reported preferring their teachers' assistance to that of their peers when they had a choice as to who will address the gaps in their linguistic knowledge (5.4.2). In the situations when it was not possible to get the teachers' assistance learners reported asking for that from their peers and generally finding it helpful (5.4.2).

Having summarised the research findings presented above, I concluded that in the observed classes the language assessment strategies were used by the teachers and the learners in ways that could support and promote the learners' language learning on the one hand, and inform the teachers' teaching, on the other. In other words, they seemed to be used formatively for both the teachers and the learners.

[52] The "other uptake" episodes were excluded from the analysis (5.3.3). When included, the rates of successful uptake following the learner peer-assessment comprise 66% (with 3% of unsuccessful learner uptake) and the rates of successful uptake following learner self-assessment remain the same 92%, as learner self-assessment never resulted in "other uptake" moves.

In this section I summarised the present study and its main findings.

7.3 Research strengths and limitations

In this section this research strengths (7.3.1) and limitations (7.3.2) are revealed.

7.3.1 Strengths

It is argued that the present study has several strong points. Firstly, by being positioned in the interface between two areas of research, second language acquisition and formative language assessment (1.2), this allowed an exploration of the relationships between two research areas. To date, only few studies have shared a similar focus. These are: Edelendos & Kubanek (2004), Leung & Mohan (2004), Ross (2005) and Rea-Dickins (2002, 2006 and 2007).

Secondly, the present study involved data collection in intact primary immersion classrooms. In other words, the teaching and learning practices observed were those that occurr in the natural setting of real classrooms (1.3 and 4.4).

Thirdly, the present study investigated issues and covered areas that have not been researched much so far. These original dimensions are summarised as follows:

- Firstly, the present study focused on investigation of immersion classrooms. That is, classrooms where learners learn English not as a second or foreign language, but as an additional language. This specific context has not been investigated much to date by neither second language acquisition researchers (2.6) nor by the language assessment researchers (3.4);

- Secondly, the present research took young learners, 8 - 10 years old, as core participants. Learners of this particular age group have been researched in only a few studies on second language acquisition (2.6) and formative assessment (3.4).

- Finally, the present study analysed the work of the class teachers and the language teacher (1.3) in the context of different subject lessons (that is, literacy, numeracy and science) and lesson phases (that is, group work and plenary

sessions) in order to reveal if these variables might have influenced the effectiveness of the observed language teaching and assessment practices. This has not been done yet in any other studies on second language acquisition (but see Afitska, 2004) or language assessment (5.3.2 and 5.3.4) and, thus, constitutes an original focus and contribution of this research.

7.3.2 Limitations

Several limitations are identified in the present research. The key ones are presented below.

The first research limitation concerns the content of some literacy lessons analysed for this study. Four out of eight literacy lessons observed involved working in the ICT suite playing a computer game, completing the tasks as the game was played and reporting the outcomes back to the class (4.7.1). It was felt that these lessons slightly differed from the routine literacy lessons taught in the classroom in that they seemed to be not as much focused on linguistic aspects of the activities as usual literacy lessons. On the other hand, however, this situation may be seen not as a limitation but rather as evidence for the fact that not all literacy lessons may necessarily be focused on the language driven activities in real schools.

Another research limitation lies in the fact that even though two language teachers worked in the researched school, in the present study the classroom practices of only one language teacher were compared to the classroom practices of two class teachers (4.5.1). This limitation was due to the fact that the second language teacher:

- mostly worked in Key Stage 1 context and her work with Key Stage 2 classes was very limited;
- she taught literacy most of the time but not the variety of subject lessons as was required by the present study;
- most of the time she supported withdrawal groups of children, however, in the present study the language teacher's work only with whole classrooms was targeted.

The fact that I did not pilot interviews with the teachers and the learners is another limitation of my study (4.6). It was felt that the learners might have shared their experiences and information about the content of interviews with the targeted learners. However, piloting the interviewing processes could have allowed me modifying and improving the quality of interview questions and procedures.

One more limitation of the present research lies in the fact that four out of twenty three lessons used in the main study were taken from the pilot study (4.6). The content of some lessons collected during pilot seemed to be slightly different from the content of the lessons collected for the main study. Namely, a couple of lessons taken from pilot data collection focused on discussing the results from practice SATs papers that learners have recently completed.

The final limitation of this study may be seen in that it examined routine classroom procedures in only one school but not in several schools (4.4). Analysing data collected from several schools could have allowed for making broader generalisations on how language support is provided to the learners in immersion settings. However, achieving this was not possible as during negotiation with LEA access to only one school, where the targeted contexts were in place, was gained.

7.4 Implications

In this section I present some of the implications that this study has for research (7.4.1), policy (7.4.2) and practice (7.4.3).

7.4.1 Research

Analysis of the present research findings revealed that further investigation is needed into several relevant areas. These areas are presented below.

Firstly, the present study provides rich data for investigating (1) types of learner errors (2.4) and types of feedback that learners receive on their errors (2.3), as well as (2) the relationship between these two variables, that is the relationship between the types of learner errors and the types of the teacher feedback. My study did not

focus on these areas however their investigation may generate valuable knowledge on how second language is taught and acquired in the classrooms.

Secondly, it would be valuable to examine in detail the role of recasts (2.3) and their effectiveness for promoting learning. I believe that this may be appropriate for two reasons. Firstly, recasts tend to be the most commonly used type of feedback in many language learning classrooms (see Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Nabei and Swain, 2002; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). Secondly, there is an ongoing debate about their effectiveness in promoting language learning (see Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Han, 2002; Nabei and Swain, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Oliver and Mackey, 2003 Leeman, 2003; Ishida, 2004; Sheen, 2006).

Thirdly, it was found in my study that implicit teacher feedback was more effective in leading to successful learner uptake than explicit (6.4.3). However I did not examine which types of implicit teacher feedback exactly led to the highest rates of successful learner uptake, the area for future research.

Fourthly, it may be interesting to further examine the following areas: quality of learner assessment in relation to the teacher assessment (3.3.3 and 6.4.5), learners' language proficiency in relation to their ability to focus on form (2.5.1 – IV), aspects of the language on which learners tend to focus their attention the most (2.5.1 - IV). These areas were not examined in detail in the present research however the findings from such analyses may add valuable knowledge to the existing research on language teaching and assessment.

Finally, it might be instructive to conduct the present study on a larger scale in order to reveal whether the present research findings (Chapter 5) remain valid for a wider sample of classes, teachers and schools over a longer period of classroom observations; that is, that they represent certain steady patterns but not appear to be individual cases.

7.4.2 Policy

Based on the findings of this study, one major recommendation for policymakers emerges. Namely, it is recommended that when developing frameworks that address issues of language teaching and assessment in immersion classrooms, policymakers comment explicitly on the teaching and assessment techniques they suggest to the teachers as part of the document's requirements, be it on effective language teaching or assessment. In other words, the policy makers are invited to explain clearly to the users what exactly is meant by each of the requirements and by each of the language teaching or assessment techniques. It will be recalled from 6.2.4, that in the present study I occasionally found it difficult to determine the extent to which the observed language teaching and assessment practices corresponded to the requirements set in the existing policy documents as sometimes it was not explained clearly in them what is meant by, say, "*appropriate* correction of errors" (OFSTED, 2002: 13), "*appropriate* feedback" (SCAA, 1996: 14), "*sensitive, positive* correction" (ibid), "levels of support being *closely* tailored to learners' needs" (DfES, 2003: 10), "*careful* monitoring of the pupil's progress" (QCA, 1999).

7.4.3 Practice

The present study suggests several implications for the school teachers working with EAL learners. They are as follows:

Firstly, it was observed in the present research that when the teachers provided feedback to the learners in eliciting way, that is, by asking questions, making clarifications requests and prompting the learners, they were more likely to get immediate response from the learners (6.4.3). It is suggested therefore that teachers may use interactions that involve implicit eliciting feedback when they aim not only to assess their learners' linguistic proficiency but also to support their linguistic development as part of the assessment.

Secondly, my research suggested that learner self-assessment may help learners become more aware of the gaps in their knowledge and may help them support their linguistic development (5.3.3, 5.4.2 and 6.3.2). However, my research also revealed that learners self-assessed very infrequently during the lessons (5.3.1 and 6.3.2).

Therefore, it is suggested that the teachers spend a certain amount of time training learners in self-assessment and motivating them to self-assess. This may be done by ensuring that learners understand their learning goals, that they can position themselves in relation to these goals and that they have skills and strategies needed to achieve these goals (3.2.2). In the researched school, for example, one of the strategies to help learners self-assess was inviting them to use dictionaries when they did not know or were in doubt how to spell the word, or a thesauruses when they did not know the meaning of the word (Appendix 6.1).

Thirdly, I suggest that teachers encourage learners to peer-assess as peer-assessment may provide opportunities for learners to learn from their peers and develop their linguistic proficiency (5.4.1). In the present study it was found that in 96% of all peer-assessment episodes that resulted in learner uptake, uptake was found to be successful (6.3.2). In other words, learners could benefit from their peers' linguistic assistance in more than nine out of ten situations when it was possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the help provided.

Finally, taking into consideration the requirements set in the official policy documents on effective teaching of the learners with EAL (1.2) and the examined teachers' interview data (5.4.1), I recommend that teachers provide learners with linguistic input that may assist them not only in developing their linguistic competence but also, and importantly, that may help learners process and comprehend the content of the teachers' instructions (4.9.1). This may be achieved by explaining new vocabulary and words that the teachers think may be difficult for the learners, paraphrasing and reformulating the content of their own and others' messages, using synonyms and explanations to ensure better comprehension and understanding from the side of the learners.

7.5 Concluding remarks

The present study was positioned at the interface between two areas of research, second language acquisition and formative assessment. Its focus was twofold. On the one hand, it investigated opportunities for language development and support that teachers provided to young learners in immersion classrooms and compared these to

the requirements set in the official policy documents on effective teaching of learners with EAL. On the other hand, it examined the teacher and learner language assessment strategies in order to reveal if they carried formative potential for the teachers and the learners.

The results of this study suggest that the teachers and learners did use classroom embedded language assessment formatively, that is to support and promote the learners' linguistic development. It was also observed that the teachers used a wide range of language teaching, or support, techniques to assist the learners with their language learning. Both the class and the language teachers were observed supporting learners in all core subject lessons during both plenary and group work sessions. Thus, it is suggested here that the teachers followed the requirements of the policy documents on effective teaching and assessment of learners with EAL.

The language assessment framework developed in the study is suggested as a supporting resource for raising teachers' awareness of language assessment as a means for supporting and promoting learners' language development and not only as a means for evaluating their linguistic proficiency.

The present study is one of few to date that has investigated classroom embedded language teaching and assessment in close interaction. Its implications, in line with implications of other few relevant studies, clearly and yet again highlighted a necessity to carry on research in this direction so that more knowledge is gathered into how development of EAL learners' linguistic proficiency can be supported and promoted by means of classroom embedded formative language assessment. In view of the fact that the present study is based on a very small sample any generalisations need to be made with great care.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FA	Formative Assessment
FLA	Formative Language Assessment
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
EAL	English as an Additional Language
NALDIC	National Association for Language Development in Curriculum
SCAA	School Curriculum and Assessment Authority
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
TES	Times Educational Supplement
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
SEN	Special Educational Needs
TDA	Training and Development Agency
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
CT	Classroom Teacher
LT	Language Teacher
TA	Teaching Assistant
RQ(s)	Research Question(s)
LEA	Local Education Authorities
ESL	English as a Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
LTA	Language Testing and Assessment
L1	First Language (Mother tongue)
L2	Second Language (Non mother tongue)
SL	Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
SLL	Second Language Learning

APPENDICES

Appendix 2.1: Systematic review of journals

№	Journal		Date								
1.	English Language Teaching Journal		2000 Vol.54	2001 Vol.55	2002 Vol.56	2003 Vol.57	2004 Vol.58	2005 Vol.59	2006 Vol.60	2007 Vol.61	200 Vol...
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*✓
		(2)	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓
		(3)	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*✓	
		(4)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
2.	(International) Journal of Applied Linguistics			2001 Vol.11	2002 Vol.12	2003 Vol.13	2004 Vol.14	2005 Vol.15	2006 Vol.16	2007 Vol.17	2008 Vol.18
		(1)		*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r
		(2)		*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	
		(3)					*r	*r	*r	*r	
3.	Language Assessment Quarterly						2004 Vol.1	2005 Vol.2	2006 Vol.3	2007 Vol.4	2008 Vol.5
		(1)					*✓	*r	*r	*✓	*r
		(2)					**r	*r	*✓	*r	
		(3)					**r	*r	*r	*✓	
		(4)					*r	*r	*r	*r	
4.	Language Awareness		2000 Vol.9	2001 Vol.10	2002 Vol.11	2003 Vol.12	2004 Vol.13	2005 Vol.14	2006 Vol.15	2007 Vol.16	2008 Vol.17
		(1)	*✓	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓
		(2)	*r	**✓	*r	*r	*✓	**✓	*r	*r	
		(3)	*r	**✓	*r	**r	*✓	**✓	*✓	*r	
		(4)	*r	*r	*r	**r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
5.	Language Learning		2000 Vol.50	2001 Vol.51	2002 Vol.52	2003 Vol.53	2004 Vol.54	2005 Vol.55	2006 Vol.56	2007 Vol.57	2008 Vol.58
		(1)	*s* r✓	*s* ✓r	*s* rr	*s* r✓	*s* ✓✓	*s* rr	*s* rr	*s* rr	*r
		(2)	*r	*✓	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	*s* rr	*r	
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
		(4)	*✓	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	

6.	Language Teaching		2000 Vol.33	2001 Vol.34	2002 Vol.35	2003 Vol.36	2004 Vol.37	2005 Vol.38			
		(1)	-	-	*r	*r	*r	*r			
		(2)	-	-	*r	*r	*r	*r			
		(3)	-	-	*r	*r	*r	*r			
		(4)	-	-	*r	*r	*r				
7.	Language Teaching Research		2000 Vol.4	2001 Vol.5	2002 Vol.6	2003 Vol.7	2004 Vol.8	2005 Vol.9	2006 Vol.10	2007 Vol.11	2008 Vol.12
		(1)	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r
		(2)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	
		(3)	*r	*✓	*r	*✓	*✓	*✓	*✓	*✓	
		(4)						*r	*✓	*✓	
8.	Language Testing		2000 Vol.17	2001 Vol.18	2002 Vol.19	2003 Vol.20	2004 Vol.21	2005 Vol.22	2006 Vol.23	2007 Vol.24	2008 Vol.25
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r
		(2)	*✓	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	*r	
		(4)	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
9.	Linguistics and Education		2000 Vol.11	2001 Vol.12	2002 Vol.13	2003 Vol.14	2004 Vol.15				
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*r	**r				
		(2)	*r	*r	*r	*r	**r				
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	**r	*r				
		(4)	*r	*r	*r	**r	*r				
10.	Studies in Second Language Acquisition		2000 Vol.22	2001 Vol.23	2002 Vol.24	2003 Vol.25	2004 Vol.26	2005 Vol.27	2006 Vol.28	2007 Vol.29	2008 Vol.30
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*✓	*r	*✓	*r
		(2)	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	*r	
		(4)	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	
11.	TESOL Quarterly		2000 Vol.34	2001 Vol.35	2002 Vol.36	2003 Vol.37	2004 Vol.38	2005 Vol.39	2006 Vol.40	2007 Vol.41	
		(1)	-	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	
		(2)	-	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	
		(3)	-	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	

		(4)	-	*r*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	
12.	**Applied Linguistics**		**2000 Vol.21**	**2001 Vol.22**	**2002 Vol.23**	**2003 Vol.24**	**2004 Vol.25**	**2005 Vol.26**	**2006 Vol.27**	**2007 Vol.28**	**2008 Vol.29**
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r
		(2)	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	
		(4)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
13.	**Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice**		**2000 Vol.7**	**2001 Vol.8**	**2002 Vol.9**	**2003 Vol.10**	**2004 Vol.11**	**2005 Vol.12**	**2006 Vol.13**	**2007 Vol.14**	**2008 Vol.15**
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*r	*r	*r
		(2)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*✓	*✓	*✓	
14.	**British Educational Research Journal**		**2000 Vol.26**	**2001 Vol.27**	**2002 Vol.28**	**2003 Vol.29**	**2004 Vol.30**	**2005 Vol.31**	**2006 Vol.32**	**2007 Vol.33**	**2008 Vol.34**
		(1)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r
		(2)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
		(4)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
		(5)	*r	*✓	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	
		(6)			*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	
15.	**Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**		**2000 Vol.20**	**2001 Vol.21**	**2002 Vol.22**	**2003 Vol.23**	**2004 Vol.24**	**2005 Vol.25**	**2006 Vol.26**		
		(1)	*r	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r		
16.	**Language and Education**		**2000 Vol.14**	**2001 Vol.15**	**2002 Vol.16**	**2003 Vol.17**	**2004 Vol.18**	**2005 Vol.19**	**2006 Vol.20**		
		(1)	*r	*✓	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r		
		(2)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r		
		(3)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r		
		(4)	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r		
		(5)				*r	*r	*r	*r		
		(6)				*r	*r	*r	*r		

Coding conventions:

[*] One issue (e.g. Volume 32, issue 2)

[**] Two different issues published in one go (e.g. Volume 32, issues 2 and 3)

[s*s]	Two issues of the same number published separately (e.g. Volume 32, issue 1 and 1-special)
[-]	Not available online (but exists in hard copy)
[blank]	Issue does not exist
[r]	Issue reviewed but no target articles found
[✓]	Issue reviewed and target article(s) found and copied

Appendix 4.1: Reliability of data coding

Lesson 1					Lesson 2					Lesson 3					Lesson 4				
№	Line	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Agreement	№	Line	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Agreement	№	Line	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Agreement	№	Line	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Agreement
1.	8	+	+	Yes	1.	16	+	+	Yes	1.	13	+	+	Yes	1.	15	+	*/+	Yes
2.	18 19	+	*/+	Yes	2.	18	+/.	-/.	No	2.	126 128	+	+	Yes	2.	51 60	+	+	Yes
3.	42 44	+	+	Yes	3.	19 20	+	+	Yes	3.	132 133	+	+	Yes	3.	70 74	+	*/+	Yes
4.	48 51	+	+	Yes	4.	13 15	+	+	Yes	4.	134 135	+	+	Yes	4.	74 77	+	+	Yes
5.	56 57	+	+	Yes	5.	19 20	+	+	Yes	5.	154	+	+	Yes	5.	102	*/+	+	Yes
6.	94 95	+	+	Yes	6.	20	+/.	-/.	No	6.	161	+	+	Yes	6.	156 157	+	+	Yes
7.	96 97	+/.	+/.	No	7.	28	+	+	Yes	7.	174 175	+/.	-/.	No	7.	158 160	+	+	Yes
8.	102 103	+	*/+	Yes	8.	29 30	+	*/+	Yes	8.	174 175	-/+	+	Yes	8.	179 189	+	+	Yes
9.	107 117	+	+	Yes	9.	31 33	+	+	Yes	9.	175	+	+	Yes	9.	189	-/+	+	Yes
10.	110 111	-/-	+/-	Yes	10.	78 79	+	+	Yes	10.	177	+	+	Yes	10.	185 186	+	+	Yes
11.	121 122	+	+	Yes	11.	79 82	+	+	Yes	11.	212	+	+	Yes	11.	232 233	+	+	Yes
12.	123 124	+	+	Yes	12.	101 105	+	+	Yes	12.	220 224	*/+	+	Yes	12.	234	+	+	Yes
13.	131 132	+	+	Yes	13.	109	+	-/+	Yes	13.	225	+	+	Yes	13.	246 248	+	*/+	Yes
14.	153 154	+	+	Yes	14.	145 146	*/+	+	Yes	14.	252	+	*/+	Yes	14.	262 263	*/+	+	Yes
15.	167 168	+	+	Yes	15.	149 152	+	+	Yes	15.	273 274	+	+	Yes	15.	264 265	+	+	Yes
16.	186	+	+	Yes	16.	153	+	-/+	Yes	16.	277 288	+	+	Yes	16.	267 269	+	+	Yes
17.	187 201	-/-	+/-	Yes	17.	159	+	+	Yes	17.	279	+	+	Yes	17.	268 269	+	+	Yes
18.	201 206	+	+	Yes	18.	163	+	+	Yes	18.	289 290	+	+	Yes	18.	271 272	+	+	Yes
19.	201 203	+/.	+/.	No	19.	164	+	+	Yes	19.	321 322	+	+	Yes	19.	328 329	+	+	Yes
20.	204	+	*/+	Yes	20.	169	+	+	Yes	20.	333 334	+	+	Yes	20.	330 331	+	+	Yes
21.	212	+	+	Yes	21.	183 188	+	+	Yes	21.	339 340	+/-	-/-	Yes	21.	333 334	+	+	Yes
22.	212 225	+	+	Yes	22.	192 202	+	+	Yes	22.	366	+	+	Yes	22.	339 340	+	+	Yes
23.	240 241	+	+	Yes	23.	219	+	+	Yes	23.	367	-/.	+/.	No	23.	353 355	+/.	+/.	No
24.	254 255	+	+	Yes	24.	220 221	+	+	Yes	24.	368	+	+	Yes	24.	407	+	*/+	Yes

25.	256	+	+	Yes	25.	229 230	+	+	Yes	25.	370	+	+	Yes	25.	410 412	+	+	Yes
26.	259 260	+	+	Yes	26.	237 238	+	+	Yes	26.	372 379	+	+	Yes	26.	434 435	+	+	Yes
27.	268	+	+	Yes	27.	253 254	+	-/+	Yes	27.	379 386	+	+	Yes	27.	488 489	+	+	Yes
28.	275 276	+	+	Yes	28.	266 267	+	+	Yes	28.	396	+	+	Yes	28.	495 497	+	+	Yes
29.	285 287	+	+	Yes	29.	270 271	+	+	Yes	29.	413	+/.	-/.	No	29.	510 512	+	+	Yes
30.	303	+	+	Yes	30.	276 277	+	+	Yes	30.	463 466	+	+	Yes					
31.	304	+	+	Yes	31.	294 296	+	*/+	Yes	31.	468 469	+/.	-/.	No					
32.	312 313	+	+	Yes	32.	297	+	+	Yes	32.	526 537	+	+	Yes					
33.	319 320	+	+	Yes	33.	310	+	+	Yes										
34.	343 349	+	+	Yes	34.	316	+	+	Yes										
35.	370	+	+	Yes															
36.	370 373	+	+	Yes															
37.	373	-/+	+	Yes															
38.	398 402	+	+	Yes															
39.	403	+	+	Yes															
40.	410 412	+	*/+	Yes															
41.	410 414	+/-	-/-	Yes															

Coding		Explanation
R1+	R2+	Both researchers noticed episode and coded it *identically*
R1+ or R1*/+	R2*/+ R2+	Both researchers noticed episode but coded it *differently*; after discussion the coding of episode was *agreed*
R1+/.	R2+/.	Both researchers noticed episode but coded it *differently*; after discussion the coding was *not agreed*
R1-/+ or R1+	R2+ R2-/+	One of the researchers initially *missed out* an episode, but after being pointed at it coded this episode *identically* to the other researcher
R1-/- or R1+/-	R2+/- R2-/-	One of the researchers *identified and coded* an episode (the other researcher had not identified and therefore had not coded it); after discussion it was agreed that this episode *should not be coded* at all
R1+/. or R1-/.	R2-/. R2+/.	One of the researchers *identified and coded* an episode (the other researcher had not identified and therefore had not coded it); after discussion researchers *could not agree on appropriateness of coding*

Total number of episodes: 136
Agreed episodes: 127
Reliability: 127x100:136=0.93%

Appendix 4.2: Teaching Staff's Consent Form

Language Development and Classroom Based Language Assessment of Young Learners with EAL: Key Stage 2 Contexts

Spring - Summer Terms 2006

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my research into classroom based language assessment and language development of young learners with EAL in Key Stage 2 Contexts.

I plan to use data (audio and video recordings of lessons and interviews) essentially for research purposes – to analyse, identify features of good practice and extend the current research on classroom based language assessment and language development of young learners with EAL.

I will observe the usual anonymity practices; names of people and schools will be changed or removed as far as possible.

I shall update you on my findings in due course.

Many thanks for your generous co-operation.

Please contact me if you have any questions or concerns about this.

Miss Oksana AFITSKA,
Flat 603 Room A,
Chantry Court,
Bristol BS1 5DH,
England.

E-mail: Oksana.Afitska@bristol.ac.uk
Phone: 079 6694 0337

I would like to have a written record of your consent, so please tick the boxes that apply and sign and date below.

☐ I consent to being audio and video recorded while teaching and talking about my teaching to the researcher.

☐ I consent to the recordings being analysed for research purposes and understand that as far as possible anonymity will be preserved if extracts are included in research publications or reports.

☐ I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time I wish.

NAME: .....

DATE: .....

Appendix 4.3: Parent or Guardian's Consent Form

Language Development and Classroom Based Language Assessment of Young Learners with EAL: Key Stage 2 Contexts

Spring - Summer Terms 2006

Date

Dear Parent or Guardian,

I (the researcher) will be coming to the school from the University of Bristol this term. I am interested in observing teachers and children doing classroom activities. I would like to make video and audio recordings of teachers and children working together in the classroom. I would also like to ask some of the children if they enjoyed the activities and what they learned.

Please complete the form below and send it back to me (see address below) so that I know if the child can take part in this research.

If you agree, I will talk to your child in school before the recording, so that he or she knows what is happening.

Please contact Miss Oksana AFITSKA if you have any questions or concerns about this.
Flat 603 Room A, Chantry Court, Bristol, BS1 5DH, England
Telephone: 079 6694 0337
E-mail: Oksana.Afitska@bristol.ac.uk

I (please write full name) ..... agree to my child (please write child's full name) .....
..... being recorded and interviewed as part of the research.

SIGNED: .....
DATE:.....

Appendix 4.4: Child's Consent Form

Language Development and Classroom Based Language Assessment of Young Learners with EAL: Key Stage 2 Contexts

Spring - Summer Terms 2006

Please tick each box if you agree.

☐ I know that a person from the university wants to watch my class to learn more about teaching.

☐ I understand that I will be videoed while doing an activity in class.

☐ I understand that I can say 'no' at any time if I do not want to take part any more and nobody will mind.

☐ I know that a person from the university may ask me to talk about the activity I was doing.

☐ I know that what I say will be private.

I agree to the above.

NAME: .....

DATE: .....

SIGNED .....

Appendix 5.1: Computation of weight variable

The 'weight' variable was computed by means of dividing 160 minutes (the longest duration of group combination (5.2) identified in data set) by the actual duration of each of the group combinations, as shown below:

```
GET FILE='Z:\Users\Afitska\PhD Data - SPSS - 30 Nov 2007.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
WEIGHT OFF.
COMPUTE Weight = RND(160/Actual Duration) .
EXECUTE .
FREQUENCIES
VARIABLES= Weight
/ORDER=  ANALYSIS .
```

Tables 5.1 below reveals frequencies of use of language assessment strategies in examined classrooms without using the weight variable, whereas Table 5.2 reveals frequencies of use of language assessment strategies in examined classrooms using the weight variable.

Table 5.1: Use of language assessment strategies (weight off)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	(1) TSI	81	17.3	17.3	17.3
	(2) TQ	143	30.6	30.6	47.9
	(3) TF	154	32.9	32.9	80 8
	(4) LPA	67	14.3	14.3	95.1
	(5) LSA	23	4.9	4.9	100 0
	Total	468	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.2: Use of language assessment strategies (weight on)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	(1) TSI	124	17.2	17.2	17.2
	(2) TQ	235	32.5	32.5	49.7
	(3) TF	239	33.1	33.1	82.7
	(4) LPA	87	12.0	12 0	94.7
	(5) LSA	38	5.3	5.3	100 0
	Total	723	100.0	100 0	

Due to the fact that cases were weighted while the outcome for Table 5.2 was computed, total number of cases within each language assessment strategy presented in the second column of Table 5.2 differs from total number of cases within each language assessment strategy presented in Table 5.1. However, the percentage representation of the language assessment strategies presented in the third column of each of the tables remains practically identical; very slight differences occurred due to the fact that values for weight variable (used for generating outcome for Table 5.2) were *rounded* in the process of computation. Maintaining a similar percentage representation of cases before and after weighing them allowed me to undertake the fair analysis of the data.

Appendix 6.1: Compact disc with data coding, lesson and interview transcripts

Contents:

- Data coding table
- Interviews with the teachers
- Interviews with the learners
- Lesson transcripts for Year 4 class
- Lesson transcripts for Year 5 class

Appendix 6.2: Reactive teacher focus on form: explicit versus implicit

Effectiveness of teacher reactive focus on form

			Uptake		
			successful	other	Total
FLF detailed	explicit	Count	29	90	119
		% within FLF detailed	24.4%	75.6%	100.0%
	implicit	Count	83	114	197
		% within FLF detailed	42.1%	57.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	112	204	316
		% within FLF detailed	35.4%	64.6%	100.0%

Teacher reactive focus on form by successful uptake

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.229[b]	1	.001		
Continuity Correction [a]	9.468	1	.002		
Likelihood Ratio	10.528	1	.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				.002	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.197	1	.001		
N of Valid Cases	316				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 42.18.

Chi-squired = 10.229, $d.f. = 1, p < 0.05$

Appendix 6.3: Teacher feedback leading to learner uptake

Teacher feedback by learner uptake

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	successful	112	35.4	35.4	35.4
	unsuccessful	13	4.1	4.1	39.6
	other	191	60.4	60.4	100.0
	Total	316	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 6.4: Teacher feedback leading to successful, unsuccessful uptake

Teacher feedback by successful and unsuccessful uptake only

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	successful	112	89.6	89.6	89.6
	unsuccessful	13	10.4	10.4	100.0
	Total	125	100.0	100.0	